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OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION

OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



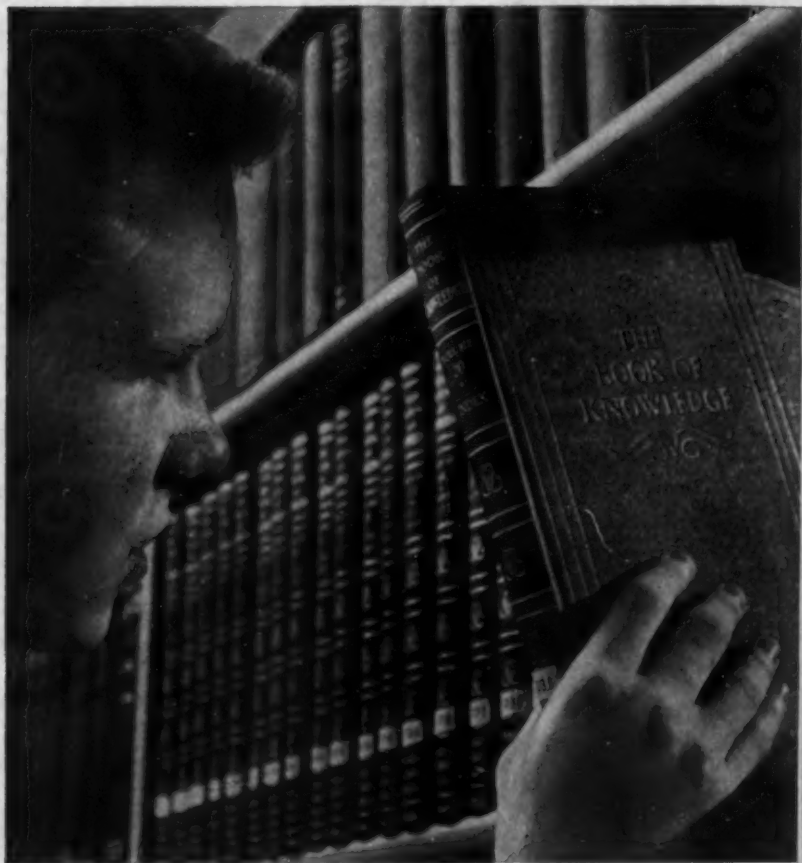
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THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

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PREFACE

THE concern and participation of the United States in international educational activities have increased steadily since the end of World War II. In the critical years immediately ahead, it appears certain that our awareness of and contribution to educational developments around the world will be among the most significant factors affecting our relations with other nations.

In this light, I have reviewed with great interest the observations and comments of Robert H. Reid on his ten-months trip, and I commend the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for its sense of timeliness in publishing his report in *THE BULLETIN*. These candid and lucid remarks on education as he saw it in many countries should give a great many educators—and lay citizens alike—a deeper understanding of the complex challenges facing schools at home and abroad.

With more than half the world's peoples still walking a narrow line between existence and starvation, with over 500 million children and youth age 18 and under still unable to read or write, education today faces an immense task. These millions in the underdeveloped lands of the world seek education desperately, and equate it most directly with freedom from poverty and hunger, and with freedom itself.

Our country, along with others of the free world, must never underestimate the power and possibilities of education for these peoples, nor can we afford to neglect actions which constantly reaffirm our own basic belief in democratic education for all children.

L. G. DERTHICK

U. S. Commissioner of Education

* * * *

"... It is late in the life of human society to begin organizing internationally for world-wide cooperation. But I recall the answer of eighty-year-old Cato when he was asked:

'Why are you beginning to learn Greek at the age of eighty?'

He replied: 'At what other age can I begin?'

* * * *

"So far no substitute has been found for integrity"—*William M. Thomas*

An American on a World Educational Odyssey

ROBERT H. REID

ROBERT H. Reid, accompanied by his wife and daughter Patricia, was an Eisenhower Fellow from the United States during 1956-57. Since 1955, Americans have been hearing a new term, Eisenhower Fellowships. What are they? The Fellowships are the outcome of a desire on the part of some of the President's friends to give him a birthday present. But Dwight D. Eisenhower did not want the usual birthday gift. He wanted something created in his name that would perpetuate an idea in which he believed implicitly as one of the best ways to promote better relations between peoples—the exchange of persons. These influential friends then brought into being the "Eisenhower Exchange Fellowships, Inc.," a bipartisan and non-political private Foundation chartered by Congress. The basic ideas behind the Fellowships as stated in the Charter are to invest in leadership development in many countries of the world and to give those selected an opportunity to pursue and broaden their interests. Fellows may study, they may travel, or they may combine the two. The Fellowships provide an opportunity to learn and grow through firsthand experience, and to pursue a lifelong desire. It is a "by-invitation-only" award through a careful and thorough process of selection.

In 1955 Eisenhower Exchange Fellowships brought twelve Fellows from other parts of the world to the United States to study the American way of life in relation to their particular interests and desires. Three Americans have been chosen each year since. The program for the Americans is quite distinct from the program of the overseas Fellows who come here.

Robert H. Reid is one of six Americans who have completed their Fellowships to date. Mr. Reid is Executive Assistant to the Committee on International Relations of the National Education Association of the United States. He came to NEA from Teachers College, Columbia University where he helped train teachers of the social sciences. As a teacher he has had considerable experience teaching history and other subjects at various levels. As a writer he has prepared many articles, pamphlets, and speeches on international affairs and education. As a speaker he has given many addresses and participated in conferences and workshops. He is active in professional organizations and has attended international conferences in Canada, France, and the Netherlands.

The Reids left this country in March 1956 to look at schooling around the world and the part it plays in promoting better relations between peoples. They returned in February 1957 after having traveled some

50,000 miles by every means of transportation. In Europe, which they saw mainly by automobile, among the countries visited were Italy, Spain, France, England, Scotland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Austria, Liechtenstein, and Switzerland.

Reaching Asia by air because of the Suez crisis, they explored Pakistan, India, Thailand, Hong Kong, Japan, Wake Island, and Hawaii. They completed their global journey by way of San Francisco, Los Angeles, Chicago, and New York.

During the course of their travels, the Reids visited many schools and experienced a number of exciting educational adventures. Robert H. Reid recorded their journey in daily diaries and a weekly newsletter where he reported many incidents of human interest. He has also prepared this series of "on-the-spot," schooling-around-the-world reports on each of the countries visited together with some of his conclusions about the state of the world in his particular areas of interest.—*Editor*

* * * *

"Everybody's Guide to Nothing-in-Particular becomes an increasingly popular form of modern journalism—and an increasingly dangerous one. Vast books distribute the grossest over-simplifications through ever-widening circles until, nowadays, there is practically not a one of us who can consider himself free from misconceptions that would startle some specialists into a mixture of laughter, anger, and despair; and, of course, we regard these misconceptions as unalterable truths."—*The Listener*

* * * *

An excerpt from *Time To Speak Up!*, a message from William Benton, Business Executive, Former Senator, and United States Unesco Delegate

"... My study of the Soviet school system demonstrated that the USSR is challenging us frontally at one of our strongest points, universal education. My visit to the USSR showed that the Soviets may outdo us in holding their best young talent in the school system. It indicated that the Kremlin is marshalling tens of thousands of indoctrinated technicians and teachers destined for the underdeveloped nations, those lands whose billion souls hold the world balance of power. The communists are saying of those nations, Follow our lead, follow our system. You too can pull yourselves up by your bootstraps in less than a generation."

"... If we rally our forces in the United States to do a better job for education, then we shall do only what our own best tradition calls for—what we should be doing even if the Soviet Union were to sink into the sea. But if we are complacent about our educational achievements, if we allow ourselves to fall behind, we may find ourselves outwitted, outmaneuvered, outthought, and outbuilt throughout the world."—Reprinted from *The Instructor*, June 1957.

INTRODUCTION

"The world is a book and he who stays home reads only one page."—*A Swedish Proverb.*

"No matter how widely you have traveled, you haven't seen the world if you have failed to look into the human hearts that inhabit it."—*Donald Culross Peattie*

IN EACH country visited, we have been concerned with the whole cultural setting—social, economic, political, geographic, religious, *etc.*, as well as education,—for all these factors relate to a country's educational system and the nature of her educational attitudes and efforts. Education does not and cannot thrive in a vacuum.

We undertook this journey as humble learners aware of an absence of internationally comparable information on these countries—descriptive, biographical, linguistic. This lack of firsthand experience on "What does my child get out of going to school?" has hampered comparative analyses. We also set out to see some of the countries where U. S. foreign policy has put into operation an educational program of one kind or another—to examine at firsthand the effectiveness of education as an arm of U. S. policy abroad.

In each country we made extensive notes on visits to the American embassy or consulate; to the Ministry of Education; to teacher organizations; to schools; on talks with teachers, parents, and pupils; and on examinations of teaching materials. On the road between capital areas, where we spent much of our time, we have tested at firsthand, what we were told, read, or saw. The informality of touring by car has opened sights to our eyes which could not be gained as well any other way.

Our efforts to increase our comparative education, by examining the relationships between systems of education, have been conditioned by one particular factor. While there is an absence of international analytical material, there exists a vast store of country and regional studies, reports, journals, texts, *etc.*, on education in the various countries. These papers, which are widely exchanged, fall into three categories:

1. For "outside" consumption—national reports prepared for international agencies and organizations;
2. For "home" consumption—from a pamphlet to a 1,000-page tome describing the educational system;
3. The voluminous literature of comparative education—written by educators mainly for educators.

It is not our intention to deal with these studies, except perhaps to point up what realities they gloss over, or to single them out when our personal findings verify the accuracy of their generalizations. In this

unique opportunity to get a global view of education, the starting points of our inquiries in each country have been three:

The first—"Why should my child go to school?" When half the world cannot read, this becomes the number one question in the educational world. While literacy is not the only test, the replies to this question do reflect the major educational problems of a particular country perhaps better than any other single yardstick. It also points up the world problem of harnessing education to international cooperation and understanding for it leads to a discussion of "What should my child get out of school?"

The second—"To what extent is your school system moving toward universal education for all?" or, at the other end of the scale, "producing an elite?" The yardstick of education for all youth through their teens is a twentieth century phenomenon of great interest to all peoples.

The third—"What do you do about the urgency of using educational channels to foster better reciprocal understanding and friendly relations among peoples?" This question carries the education of citizens, in my opinion, to its ultimate goal.

We did not expect to find all the answers. The three questions above, it seems to us are basic to our interest and the purpose of the Fellowship. We have set out to look at schooling around the world, believing that education has a role to play in international affairs. We hope the answers and questions raised may help encourage education to play the more vital role it must if the world is to survive.

I wanted to look at the nature of the educational opportunity in various parts of the world as it compares with that opportunity here in this country in the elementary, secondary, and higher education fields. What does education mean to parents and their children—social status on the ladder of life, prestige, improved occupations and economic standing, and human opportunities, *etc.*? I must admit that I had to explain to a number of people along the way that I was more interested in "lower" education, in a sense—that education which takes in some 500 million children under eighteen years of age, below the higher education level. I was curious to find out what happened in the long sweep of education from the time that a child is first exposed until he emerges as the citizen we hope may move freedom forward in his country.

I was also looking at America's educational efforts abroad because since 1950 I had been identified with the Exchange of Teachers program and had served as chairman of its National Advisory Committee. I now serve as chairman of the American Council on Education's Washington International Center Advisory Committee on Policy. Some twenty thousand "leaders" and "trainees" brought from other countries have had their orientation to America at this Center in the last seven years.

We hope to find out, as we broaden our educational horizons and as the comparisons from country-to-country begin to fit together, if world education is helping to make this a better and more peaceful world. The observations which follow are my own, although we are indebted to many fine people who helped us in our quest.

Schooling in Italy

During the month we spent in Italy, traveling from Naples, where we left the *Andrea Doria*, all the way around to Genoa by car, we saw much of Italian education. Schooling is influenced by several factors: the heritage of Rome and its glorious history; the cult of the personality which is evident in a longing for the great days and accomplishments of Mussolini; the "occupation" of Italy by NATO forces and the tourists; the modernization of the road system and the great and growing number of motor scooters and Fiat cars; the phenomenal growth of Italian television; the influence of the Church; and the general cynicism of the Italian toward the future in political and economic matters. There is great wealth in Italy—and abject poverty. This absence of a real middle class, except perhaps in the large cities, reflects itself in education.

There is a vast difference between the schooling offered in Rome or Florence and that found in the rural areas which make up most of Italy. Nowhere is there an equivalent of the American central-school district system for rural areas. City schools look much like city schools all over the United States—except that they resemble those of some 35 or 40 years ago.

Incidentally, my 12-year-old daughter, a consumer of education in her own right, has been an invaluable aid in assessing what we hear and see about education. She gained entry for us to many schools along the way where the usual procedure would be formal and slow application for a visitor's permit from the Ministry—and often an artificial situation when we arrive.

Children between the ages of five and 12 go to school in Italy because the State says they must. Many parents have not found for themselves a valid answer to the question, "Why should my child go to school?" Of some 50 million Italians, five million are enrolled in formal schooling—four out of every five of these are enrolled in compulsory primary schools up to fifth-grade level. Fewer than one out of five reaches a secondary school because of rigid "class" and examination requirements, and a minute fraction go on to higher education. Beyond the first five grades of school, Italy is not yet educating her youth—and education of the talented elite is often rigid and archaic. Illiteracy is, therefore, still great. In Naples we saw eleven- and twelve-year olds learning to use a blowtorch in apprenticeship to a Fiat dealer. At the same age they are running elevators in Rome or carrying *espresso* coffee to offices in Genoa.

The local school districts rarely provide for their students beyond the fifth grade. This is the end of formal schooling for most of the Italian children. Then the Church, the movies, the newspapers, and periodicals take over, joining hands with the home. Educationally speaking the Church seems to do very little.

There are bright spots for one fine movement. Evidently more widespread all over Europe than in the United States is the pre-school nursery

pattern from ages three to six (or "nests") for working mothers. Much good is accomplished here in diet, nutrition, health, *etc.*

Since one out of every ten Italians is in a school, the importance of education in the development of Italy is apparent. Very little of this schooling, however, is used to relate Italy to the rest of the world. Very little of the United States funds for technical assistance is being used to upbuild Italy's education system. Most of our overseas personnel stationed in Italy send their children to private or American schools.

The curriculum in Italian schools consists of religion, moral and civic instruction (but not current events or contemporary history except in rare instances), manual work, Italian, arithmetic, Italian history and geography (nothing about international agencies and cooperation—not UNICEF nor even the Red Cross), drawing, handwriting, and singing. One word, nationalism, describes the history and geography taught.

A small percentage of students who pass the intermediate, 11 to 14 year examinations, go on to highly specialized academic or practical curricula in commerce, crafts, industry, agriculture, and the merchant marine. It must be remembered that upper-secondary school (lyceum) is the equivalent, in Italy, of the American college. One can become a teacher in a primary school in Italy at age 17 with the equivalent, by United States standards, of a high-school education. Teachers are public servants and after 15 years can earn as much as \$100 a month. They have high standing in their communities, are respected and looked up to, and their salaries are good in comparison to Italy's standard of living.

While the written reports speak glowingly of schools for the handicapped, mobile book libraries, holiday camps, *etc.*, we saw, as we drove along, very little evidence of these in the cities and none in the rural areas. Italian children take their education, adequate or not, seriously—rigid discipline, rote memorization, lots and lots of drill, long school day (we saw them coming home at 6:00 and even 7:00 P.M.), school on Saturday with Thursday afternoon off.

Out of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ million in elementary schools, only 250,000 go on to lyceums (secondary schools). In higher education about 150,000 go on to universities.

There is as yet, no movement for educating *all* the children. The education of the elite is highly selective and rigid in terms of "class" distinctions as to careers and occupations. The drop-out rate in the primary grades one to five is six per cent, or, a child can leave school before 12 if he pleads poverty and family need. There is evidence that many do. By grade thirteen, or first year of college, about 8/10 of one per cent are still in school.

In spite of much of the above, Italy has made great strides in reinstating its public school system after World War II. New school structures in bombed out areas are evident, if not elsewhere. The teaching of history is required, but it is nationalistic and hero-worshipping in content for the glorious days of the past. I could get few leads on promising educational

trends for the future. A notable exception is the result of the American effort to democratize Italian education which I found in Florence and Pisa, as an example of U. S. Army of Occupation efforts. The National Federation of Secondary-School Teachers reports that no teaching about international organizations is included in the curriculum. I heard that current events are sometimes taught, but I never saw it in my visits to schools. It would seem that the teaching of history stops at about 1914 for most Italians.

The unique function of formal schooling in the twentieth century is to relate individuals to the family and to the local, state, national, and international society in which they live and must function as citizens. Italy has not yet caught up with twentieth century education nor have those who are "helping" Italy recognized the tremendous potential of improving her educational system so that it can play its fullest role on democracy's side.

In the exchange of persons programs, language is a factor and there are other obstacles. Since 1949 some 1,047 Italians have come to the United States for study, teaching and lecturing, research, *etc.* under Smith-Mundt (PL 402—80th Congress) and Fulbright Act (PL 584—79th Congress) financed partly with U. S. dollars and partly with Italian currency. Under these government programs approximately 940 Americans have gone to Italy for similar purposes. Only a handful of these have been secondary and primary teachers who have mainly attended summer workshops. Ways should be found so that many more could be included, for the exchange program is a shining beacon in the total American effort in Italy.

In some parts of Italy, anti-NATO feeling is strong. They seem to resent disrupted rents and services, undisciplined personnel, *etc.* It seemed to us aimed largely at the United States. Increased tourism has led some Italians to carry on their own private "American aid" programs. The 30 per cent Communist vote seems mainly an evidence of unrest and uncertainty about the future.

Italy's recent admittance to membership in the United Nations should offer new opportunities to break the educational log-jams of the elimination examination, and the lack of attention to the problems of an interdependent world. More educational teams should be exchanged between Italy and the United States, for the forces of formal education in Italy offer a distinct opportunity for the future. The United States, at home and abroad, has not yet recognized the long-term value of working with these cultural leaders.

* * * *

"Out of our beliefs are born deeds. Out of our deeds we form habits; out of our habits grow our character; and on our character we build our destination."—Dean Henry C. Hancock

Schooling in Spain

After Italy, Spanish education looked a little better to us than if we had gone there directly from the United States. In our three weeks in Spain the contrast between cities like Barcelona, Valencia, and Madrid, and the medieval rural areas was like day and night. Driving across Spain is scenically interesting but not easy—no gas, poor roads (some last repaired in 1936), and few places to stop between cities. It was most rewarding for we could see the walled-in villages, the poor but happy people living as their ancestors might have lived 2,000 ago.

The main influences are the traditional past, the Church, the Civil War, and Franco. Of 29 million people, 4½ million between the ages of six and twelve go to compulsory schools. About 25 per cent of the Spanish people are illiterate by their own statistics. In answering the question "Why should my child go to school?" I suspect none, or few, would send his offspring if left to his own devices. The exception is, of course, the fabulously wealthy Spaniard. There is only token education for all. The percentage of the elite who receive some education is smaller in Spain than in other European countries.

Medievalism characterizes the educational system with emphasis on traditionalism, keen patriotism (to Franco's state), and the effects of the Civil War. There is little evidence of Communism in Spain. The schools—their administration, curriculum, teaching personnel, *etc.*—are rigidly controlled by the Ministry of National Education. The Ministry, in turn, sets up local controls through inspectors which insure a uniformity and a subordination to the will of the State. While Spanish education is now supposed to be secular, the representatives of the Church continue to play an important role—especially in the vast areas of non-urban Spain. While the elementary and secondary schools come under the strictest control, ever-widening autonomy is being granted to the universities. College students even demonstrate against Franco these days with light punishment. Conformity, rote drill, discipline, supervision, guidance, direction and inspection duties are words that come quickest to mind in describing Spanish elementary and secondary education—and uniformity.

Inspectors visit and check schools and a child's educational future is determined by a series of examinations. There is one called a test for a "Primary School Leaving Certificate" enabling a 12-year old to "qualify for exercising civil rights and securing employment."

The Spanish claim to have replaced many school buildings destroyed in the Civil War. We saw some of these in the cities. We did not find one in thousands of miles of driving in the country. What an opportunity school construction would be for American technical assistance funds, which now go almost exclusively to electrification, roads, and agriculture.

As in Italy, the teacher has great prestige. Each school operates under a system of formal discipline, and, though many children yearn for higher education, there are only 12 Spanish universities. The elementary schools

impart the essentials of "moulding the will, conscience, and character" so that each child may fulfill his "duty and his eternal destiny." One learns quickly that free public education is now a universal problem and that generalizations about differences in America, Asia, and Europe will need careful re-examination. Elementary schools also teach religion and moral and social training as well as Spanish, mathematics, history, geography, gymnastics, and organized games. To go beyond age 12, one must pass an examination which is an elimination contest. The curriculum then becomes weighted according to the type of employment prevalent in the area of the school. No crossing of class lines here! I can't help but wonder what would happen to Don Quixote if he were living today!

Secondary education is classical except that girls are given domestic subjects. Each year the suitability of pupils to pass to the next stage is examined. While some Spanish educators are aware of the obsolescence of such a system, they talk hopefully of reforms to come in the future—not now. Little is taught about the rest of the world except in terms of earlier Spanish explorers and "conquistadors." No international content is allowed in the uniform curriculum.

Teachers are greatly respected and, at the university level, can make from \$420 to \$840 a year; elementary teachers, \$250 to \$468 after many years of teaching. Within the Spanish economy, this is better than most. They do have what are known as "official" quarters. Italian rural elementary schools are handsome edifices compared to the Spanish. Again there is great contrast between city education and country education.

A list of Spanish educational problems for the future indicates an awareness of needs even if there is little action to date. The recent influx of foreign students has created a new interest in Spanish-American studies.

In summary, two out of every four school-age Spaniards are in an elementary school, another in a private institution. By age 12, only two and one-half per cent are still going to intermediate schools. Only one tenth of one per cent goes on to higher education, beyond secondary schools. Smith-Mundt exchanges, according to reports I have seen, have brought only ten Spanish students and 16 leaders to the United States, while fewer than that number have gone to Spain. America owes much to Spanish culture, yet not one American teacher has been involved in an official exchange program. There must be ways to remove the obstacles to exchange.

There is no effective national teachers organization in Spain. America's rich Spanish heritage is not being made use of—and is now being abused a bit (or *vice versa*) by the Hollywood migration to Spain to make movies and by American tourists and military personnel.

While her universities have world-wide prestige, as do their scholars, the opportunities in Spanish elementary and secondary education and teacher training go begging. One Spaniard told me Spain is the most

internationally minded country in Europe since it has no colonial ambitions!

Spain, too, has just become a United Nations' member and a recent UNESCO educational conference in Spain was greeted with enthusiasm. Perhaps they will begin to relate themselves educationally—and otherwise—to the rest of the world. I heard a distinguished educator blame Spanish "bad weather" on U. S. atomic experiments, a remark I was to hear many times and many places on the trip.

The Spaniards are proud, honest and have perpetuated a "way of life" which emphasizes deeper values and spiritual happiness and which contrasts strikingly with modern tensions, ulcers, and heart disease. We have much to learn from Spain, and they from us. Many methods of cooperation need to be employed, but let us not forget the improvement of their schools in our programs of assistance.

Schooling in France

We spent nine weeks in France, a month of that in the Paris area. French education is highly complicated and community conscious—characteristics shared with American education. Technically, French children must go to school until age 14. The French are proud of their intellectual bent. Even your waiter can remember three pages of memorized Racine—and he's not self-conscious about showing it off. Citizenship is important in French educational goals, but in a different sense than in the United States. No self-respecting French teacher would deal with current events beyond 1914—since he might get into politics. They do, however, teach their children, in one geography class I visited, and, by rote memorization, that "Algeria is French."

At 11, French children take competitive examinations to qualify for higher *lycees* and colleges. You may have seen the story of a recent French examination where everyone failed a question on an obscure phrase which the eleven-year olds were asked to interpret in philosophical terms. The French Ministry admitted the difficulty of the question and substituted a new one after a great parental and newspaper furor! The new question it seemed to me was just as obscure!

Children go to school in France because the State says they must, because their parents want them to, and because their families receive a monthly allowance, *des allocations familiales*, when they attend faithfully. Each commune has a fine looking school—even in the poorest areas of France, complete with school health program. Since we lived in a suburb of Paris, Le Vesinet, for a month, we had a firsthand opportunity to use our French, to see the system in operation, and to get to know the French people in the market, at the cleaners, shopping, *etc.* Our daughter was tutored in her school work during that month, and we learned much from our thrice-weekly contacts with her teacher.

The French are proud of their schools and try to keep them up—both public and private. The elementary schools have a close inspection system, but not necessarily supervision of what is taught. Each inspector (there are 500 for elementary education) must visit every teacher in his district every two years. France, too, has an elaborate system of pre-nursery, nursery, and infant classes for working mothers. School runs on a six-hour day and often stays on until 6:00 P.M.

With an educational heritage that includes Montessori, the French are always interested in the soundest principles of education. They stress living as a member of a community. Early ability to read and write is also stressed. There are open-air schools for delicate children. Thursday is a school holiday while Saturday is a school day. (Since enrollments are high, class sizes are also high, sometimes as many as 45). Like the United States, they run an 180-day school year. All of France has one curriculum for elementary education. There are in the 38,000 French communes some 24,000 which still have co-educational, one-teacher (or one room) schools. These are very attractive, however, and many French teachers (one figure says 160,000) have taught in these many graded, one-teacher schools.

The French are making an effort to deal with rural schooling. They recognize it as a separate problem, but have run into obstacles in setting up central schools fed by busses. French individualism likes to keep things in their own communes! Teachers must be at least 18 years old. French education is secular and there is separation of Church and State (though many private schools are run by congregations). Ethics is taught in the elementary school. One geography text I examined was very attractive, and well-written. An elaborate system of two-year teacher training is responsible for teacher recruitment.

There is a shortage of teachers in France perhaps because many salaries range from \$80 at beginning to \$160 a month. The French educator and parent are aware of France's educational problems. Having lost so many of their youth in wars, French children are precious, and their future is carefully watched. Educational reforms proposed include guidance, agricultural instruction, a re-examination of the whole examination system leading to the "sword-of-Damocles-like" *baccalaureate*. Some have even proposed the elimination of all examinations—but this has not met official approval.

Controlled by a Ministry of National Education, some four million of 43 million Frenchmen must go to school. The educational system impresses one as "old-fashioned-good"—but a bit behind the needs of present-day French society. The progress since the liberation has not been as great or as fast as it should be. The thoughtful Frenchman seems to suffer from a "great-nation-no-longer" complex. His intellectual pride and honesty makes him more aware of his deficiencies than, say, the Italian or the Spaniard. The school system perpetuates this perhaps more than necessary, and, for my money, accounts for much that occurs

in French government and politics. The French are a cultured people and they respond to people of culture regardless of nationality.

The French need to remove vertical distinctions in their educational system, to eliminate social class-selection distinctions, to offer more education to all classes of people, to eliminate discontent by preparing more potential baccalaureates for actual existing jobs, and to raise the school level to 18 years. Eighty-three per cent of their children are in elementary schools now. Less than eight per cent go on to colleges and lycees (secondary schools); less than seven per cent, to vocational schools; and less than two per cent, to higher institutions of learning. Some experiments with *classes nouvelles* to keep secondary students in school longer have been tried. They are being watched with interest.

As noted earlier there is almost no teaching of any current event after World War I in the primary and secondary schools. This is explained in the French teachers "scrupulous regard for impartiality"! There are a few extracurricular high-school history clubs that deal with current events. Secondary-school "professors" have high standing in their communities. They lead many adult education programs. France is a country where teaching as a career may lead to the cabinet and to government distinctions (Herriot and Pasteur). Teachers are union organized in France and very active in Paris-based UNESCO programs which we examined carefully.

There are some 18,000 American military personnel in Paris and its environs, yet only four head-for-head American interchange teachers were recruited last year between the United States and France. There are valuable teacher development programs and others as well. Since 1949 some 1,750 French students and cultural and political leaders have visited the United States and *vice versa*, mainly at the opinion-leader levels. There should be more programs, language obstacles notwithstanding, which would reach a greater number at the people-to-people level.

The French we met do not dislike Americans. They do resent the "army of occupation" atmosphere of NATO and SHAPE, the PX's, the easy-money, the large American cars, the resistance to learning their language, etc. It is unfortunate that NATO headquarters in Paris are located in the *Palais de Chaillot* which Frenchmen consider the worst piece of architecture in all Paris, and an eye-sore of which they want to be rid.

It doesn't always seem too obvious, today, but France and America have very much in common—and, at stake. We need to work at reviving our community of interests. Educational cooperation could be one way. Culture is another, but in greater depth than sending over choral societies, glee clubs, and the touring sports and music figures, valuable as they are. These are all fine in their ways. There are, however, other ways which should be opened, including distinguished teachers from all educational areas, and men of science, letters, art, music, etc.

France needs desperately to feel again a sense of accomplishment and progress. We rarely "like our benefactors"—only when they give us a reciprocal opportunity to return favors in kind. France, like many other countries today, suffers from its "receiving" role. We need to find ways to let her "give"—and she has much to offer. Americans could learn much from the French about the teaching, learning, and use of languages as one example. There are many other ways, and we should encourage their exploration. Like Henry David Thoreau in Concord, we feel we have traveled much in France—and learned a lot.

Schooling in the British Isles

We arrived, car and all, by plane in Lydd, not far from London, and spent one month in Northern Ireland, the Irish Free State, Wales, Scotland, as well as in England. When we arrived, many schools were beginning to close for the summer holidays. As we left, schools, in some parts, were ready to reopen.

The many English papers reflect a great interest in education, with articles and editorials on such subjects as academic *vs.* technical education, bulging school rooms, rising tax rates, shortage of teachers, the need for a new type of education, *etc.* With many papers, there are, of course, many viewpoints. There seems to be a "middle class" revolution in English education—a "revolt" against the *public* (private) school pattern of Eton and Harrow, and a desire to improve and dignify the *Modern* (secondary) Grammar school to which all Englishmen, who cannot afford the Eton's or Harrow's, aspire to send their children. And they do aspire, for education is very precious to these people. These Grammar schools provide a kind of technical competence, with academic subjects, for good living in the British Isles.

If the United States can be said to be trying to provide "education for all," the English may be said to be striving for a new and more democratic concept of education—"education for each." This all stems from the 1944, *Butler Act or Education Act*, a milestone in English educational history. This national act, with its democratic concepts of local control of curricula and courses, allows for a most friendly relationship between central educational authorities and local educational leaders. It provides state support for private schools, and moral and religious education in all schools. It is based on a fundamental concept of education, not for all, but for each according to age, ability, and aptitude. The English do not see equality of opportunity as conformity in educational growth. They are trying to avoid the pitfalls which often lead to a cult of mediocrity.

It must first be said that, in twelve years since the Education Act came into being, there is still a large gap between what this Act calls for and what has actually been provided, to date. Outside the Act are the "independent" schools, including the old *public* schools which confine their illustrious, academic, tradition-bound education to an elite, class-

society of "leaders." Eton and everything about it seems "out of step" with modern Britain. Yet, any man with an able son would want to consider this school. This is mainly selective, good education in any day and age—and, while educationally speaking, something else is also needed, let us hope the best of it never disappears entirely.

How much of the Education Act has "caught on"? This simple, coherent policy of education places the responsibility squarely on the community; and, everywhere we went, we saw and heard evidence of community responsibility for education. There seems to be more interest in teaching human beings than in teaching subjects. They are interested in educational continuity for their students from age five to age 16 and possibly even age 18. The "eyes and ears" of the system are Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools who help, but do not direct. They strive for unity in the educational process, but not for uniformity.

The system includes primary education to age 11. In some cities and towns in Ireland and Northern Ireland, we saw youngsters obviously too young to be working, but they were—in hotels, restaurants, *etc.*—so there are abuses of the law. Like Europe, there is strong emphasis on the needs of working mothers by provision for nursery (2 to 5 years) schools. There is still a great need for teachers, especially better prepared ones. In many instances the instruction is still formal, rote, drill, and dull. In Oxford and Stratford-on-Avon, we saw notable exceptions—modern schools, good equipment, and bright and able teachers emphasizing language skills, activity, and experience.

Secondary education, unavailable to 75 per cent of all adolescents before 1944, reflected an emphasis on educational opportunity for aristocratic groups. In attempting to remove these deficiencies and inequalities, England has been faced with the problems of selection and provision. Selection is made by age 11+ and by a series of eliminating examinations.

Three types of secondary schools are provided: (1) *the secondary-technical school*—relates itself to a particular industry or occupation, but continues its academic pattern side-by-side with the vocational; (2) *the secondary-grammar school*—is the answer to the public school, offering to the top 15 per cent an intellectual diet, an abstract approach to learning, with high-scholarship standards, and is the avenue into teaching and into universities for low-income groups; (3) *the secondary-modern school*—offers a good all-round education of a practical basis, for students with I. Q.'s of 70-110, and is the school that is the future hope and promise of education for the 75 per cent who received none before—the vast majority of the English citizens of tomorrow.

There is a daily debate in the press about more recognition and status for these schools by the government and their need for teachers, better salaries, *etc.*, and by parents and educators. As yet the great mass of English youth get little secondary education. The Butler Act has magnified this need. There is little "in-service" training of teachers to keep pace with new demands.

In England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, where some 50 million people live, this theme was re-echoed—"on the education of children does the future of the world depend." Yet, very little evidence of an emphasis on the needs of society reflects itself in the education of these children. They get little citizenship education, little current events teaching, little of the history and culture of other peoples, except as they relate to British history—which is considerable! This is all the more surprising since many English, Irish, and Scot schoolmen "drift" into politics and government posts. Surprisingly, we found a strong insularity and narrowness of thinking on international affairs and little thought or regard for the educational responsibilities in the direction of international cooperation.

With the seizure of the Suez Canal, there was a "smell of war" that reached even the least sensitive nostrils. An Oxford professor took issue with the value of treating "modern problems" in the classroom. An Irish minister of education recognized the need for a "new" education, but he admitted nothing was being done about it—not even Fulbright Teacher Exchange! In Northern Ireland, and in Scotland, the schools seem like nineteenth century approaches to twentieth century problems. There were exceptions, of course.

Television, the newspapers, radio, many periodicals, and many, many good "cheap" editions of books are available for a kind of education in the world today. Formal education has not kept pace, much less taken its rightful role. Teachers continue to confine themselves to educational matters in the narrowest, "vacuumatic" sense. There are some notable examples where efforts are being made to harness the teaching profession's talents in the whole field of public service—but these are the exceptions rather than the rule. The general responsibility of schools and teachers to society is everywhere assumed—and not acted upon. While parents tend to press for more education, relatively few children reach college in the United Kingdom today.

America has a great stake in the British Commonwealth. Each year we have a hundred or more teacher exchanges, though, oddly enough, few with Northern Ireland and almost none (not one secondary teacher) with Eire. Nowhere have we been so aware that a common language and a common heritage do not always make for common interests and desires. There is a loosening of early ties with America and a growing apart. Educational exchange has helped to stem it a little. The star of the program in England has been the teacher exchange. Those to whom we have talked reflect a better understanding of the United States and of our relation to the rest of the world, including Britain. This is especially true of the 150 "leaders" who have come to our country. We had also found this to be true of the Americans who taught here.

Unfortunately, too many of our American efforts abroad reach only the elite, the "names," not into the grass-roots of society in these countries. The Irish are amused, in their Irish way, by United States' efforts to

bring them culture. An American symphony orchestra in Dublin is fine, but, arriving at the time of the Irish Horse Show and at a price of one pound (or \$2.80, the cost of a week's admission ticket to the Horse Show), the competition for an audience may prove too keen. It varies from country to country, however, for in Denmark we could not buy a ticket to hear this same orchestra at Copenhagen's *Tivoli*.

The British Isles have, in their teachers in greater abundance than many nations, a well-trained, learned group of dedicated individuals who could do much. In their approach to education for each, there is offered an opportunity for educational progress unique in educational circles today.

Under the Education Act, the English system may represent a happy mean between the two extremes of education for all, and education for an elite few. Many nations, including the United States, could do well to study this flexible pattern which gives real scope to the efforts of those who are, in the last analysis, the key people of any educational system—the teachers.

After our stay in the British Isles, it seems ever more important to recognize the existence of nationalism in *all* countries, developed or underdeveloped, and to assume its continuation as a force in each country's existence. It becomes, therefore, more and more important to help remove the barriers that exist between different national movements.

Schooling in Scandinavia

Perhaps the first thing to remember about the country of the Norsemen, where we spent three weeks after arriving at Bergen by ship from Newcastle, is that the combined population of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark is less than one half the total enrollment of *students* in American elementary and secondary schools last year.

The lands of the Vikings have much in common: geography, sea-faring, vulnerability to common enemies, common Aryan tongues which allow them to understand each other in a language vernacular, and a common religion—Lutheranism. They have also a common pattern of "state control" which affects their educational heritage, and a "kind of negative neutralism" conditioned by their experiences in wars in this and earlier centuries.

In each of the three countries visited, a "defense" of the values of their educational systems was made in these terms: in *Norway* the "Teachers Manifesto of Faith and Freedom" was a truth for which Norwegian teachers were willing to die—the freedom to teach for a free society in their painful but successful resistance to the imposition of a Nazi educational formula.

In Norway the teaching of languages at an early age is notable and, as they say, necessary. The dignity and status of the teacher is high. Many children and their parents look with pride on teaching as a chosen

profession. From the Scandinavian countries, we have much to learn in these two areas. Schooling begins at age seven and at age eleven there is the inevitable "control" examination to determine a child's educational future. How does it work? Of 340,000 elementary students (ages 7-14), only one out of five goes on to "higher education." Another one out of eight goes to a vocational or technical high school, and, finally, one out of 56 gets an opportunity to attend a college or university. Under such a selective elimination contest, a higher degree of competent specialized education often results. In the United States, by contrast, three out of four children attend high school. What American parent would "buy" such "selectivity" if his child were involved as an unsuccessful candidate is a question I will not tackle—though I suspect the answer lies somewhere between the extremes.

I should have noted above that, of the one in 56 who goes to college, only 16 per cent are graduated. With the relatively few who do continue their education, there is a teacher shortage in Norway! The Ministry of Church and Education, with few exceptions, controls the whole educational system of the Kingdom. We learned in our travel across Norway, so remote are some of the areas, and so difficult is the transportation, that it is hard to see how supervisors get around—without a helicopter! There is even snow to contend with in August!

Norwegians are internationally minded by their history, occupations, and nature (and Trygve Lie). The emphasis on language competence for speech is unique. Their textbooks when examined reflect their interest in the rest of the world. Teacher training is "set-off" from the universities (of Oslo and Bergen), so there is a "narrowness" there that needs correction. This is the eternal professor *vs.* educationist struggle. Norway has a small exchange program which has proved quite successful and which needs expansion in the "leader" program and in the Exchange of Teachers.

We liked Norway, found it very friendly, receptive to ideas, and helpful. More educational contacts in elementary and secondary education, including teacher training, are needed.

Sweden puzzled us on our short visit. The Swedish people are not always as friendly as the Norwegians; they are much more prosperous, with a good middle-class economy. Some seem preoccupied with two extremes: pride in the Nobel prizes and what they stand for, and excessive interest (at least it seemed to us) in their stupendous bomb-shelters in Stockholm. They are aware of the United Nations. (Dag Hammarskjöld once taught at their University of Uppsala). Except that they have managed a neutral role in two World Wars, they are much, educationally speaking, like their fellow Norsemen. They are, however, quite sensitive about "staying out of wars"—and very much aware of their eastern neighbors. As the largest of the Scandinavian countries, they "stimulate" the others in educational reforms. Their educational statistics appear similar to those of Norway and Denmark.

Their Exchange program is even smaller than Norway's. Only 16 Americans have gone to Sweden (1950-1954) as against 117 Swedes (including 15 classroom teachers) who have visited the United States. They have not had enough "leaders" (especially from "lower" education) and—to the best of my ability to ascertain—there have been *no* American exchange teachers. Language problems and "matching" and perhaps a bit of stubbornness and bureaucracy have brought about this situation. There are, however, some private exchange programs which make this picture a little better.

The Swedish people study the history and culture of their country in teacher education. In schools, current events are treated from newspapers once a *month*. The Swedes we met seemed not as proficient in English as the Norwegians and Danes.

Denmark captures one's heart and perhaps the mind as well. Copenhagen is lovely, and Danes have a delightful sense of humor which they most often turn upon themselves. They seem to live in two worlds—that of Hans Christian Andersen and the grimmer world of reality. And they bridge the gap between the two with a saying from Andersen, "Life itself is the most wonderful fairy tale." A trip through their National Museum (of archeology and ethnic backgrounds) reveals their sense of history and the relations of peoples.

Educationally, the magic numbers are still seven, when they start to school and 11, when the decision is made as to their educational future—but with one unique twist. About 100 years ago a man named Grundtvig developed the idea that children should learn at home, with their grandmothers—he evidently had an unusual one—until the age of 12. Then they should pursue occupations until they are 18, and, as he said, old enough to appreciate their need for education. The above is an over-simplification of the development of the Folk High-School Movement in Denmark—a very large and very successful program for 18-year-olds and up. Many of these "colleges" are located in castles and provide "residential adult education" for the common people. While the curriculum is not vocational, it has had great vocational results. It has seemed to create the desire in these young people to be good farmers, good housewives, *etc.*, and also good citizens.

In the past I have, perhaps unwisely, looked upon "adult" education as a kind of "corrective" medicine as against "regular" education as a kind of "preventive" medicine. It would seem that Grundtvig's private "college" movement, in spite of its unorthodoxy, needs more careful examination by American educators.

It should have been noted that the Grundtvig stream has hindered the national system of secondary education by its very success. At the elementary-school level, however, only three per cent of the children have been affected by the Grundtvig "grandmother" approach, the rest go to national schools. D. C. Monrod was the leading name in this national system. He said, "We must educate our masters."

Danish textbooks reflect international cooperation. There is a bilateral textbook review and study program among the Scandinavian countries I wish I could go into here. It is worth noting, however, as one step in my quest. There should be more than the two exchange teachers allotted this year—and more “leaders.”

I should like to mention one final experience in Denmark. Copenhagen has had *no* American movies for a year—the major reason being that of a “dispute-boycott” on fee splitting. Up to now I would have subscribed to the viewpoint that American films are too often a detriment to good relations with various countries. I have learned—the hard way—that there is something worse than an American film. It is *no* American movies at all—with East Germany, Russia, and the satellites filling the gap!

I am learning that each country produces its own answers, varying with traditions, needs, state of crises, public confidence, and its resources. Basically it is the same problem; how far to educate the individual, how much the citizen, and how can the two be reconciled? Dwight D. Eisenhower put it succinctly when he said, “Fortunately for us and our world, youth is not easily discouraged.” I am becoming increasingly certain that there is always something to be learned from other peoples and other countries. Comparisons between countries, however, are difficult, and sometimes odious, and it really proves little to contrast the *best* of one country and the *worst* of another—or *vice versa* as the case may be. Yet there is an emerging contrast between the educational opportunities offered in northern and in southern Europe.

Schooling in Germany

Our two weeks in West Germany revealed other contrasts, of point-counter-point. These must be kept in mind on such a short visit. As we drove through the land, we passed Hamelin, the pied piper's town and also Belsen. There is high industrialization and also primitive farming. There are still signs of Nazism, but also of democracy. Over everything, in September 1956 when we were there, is the mark of a foreign army that has been on the scene for more than ten years. There are American cars with license-plates marked “U. S. Forces in Germany” in great and sometimes irritating quantities all over Europe. We saw, from the outside, the largest Post Exchange in a land of comparative plenty, another factor in U. S.—German relations.

In the last ten years a tremendous effort has been made to influence the German soul. This has been especially true in the field of German education. One must remember Germany's long heritage of fine education. For many years American educators, scholars, professors went to Germany to learn. U. S. Ambassador Conant (he was still ambassador when we were there) was a student in this country. The “Gymnasium” was long studied and copied by secondary educators in America, as were teacher training and German methods of instruction. Many German edu-

cational ways are "household" words in America—the kindergarten movement to name but one.

From Flensburg, where we crossed the Danish-German border, to Bonn Enclave and Bad Godesburg where we stayed, we saw evidence of the destructiveness of war, of the rapid strides toward high productivity and industrialization and rebuilding by these busy, industrious people. Germany looks to us much more prosperous than England or France. Since the formation of the *Bundesrepublik*, West Germany has no National Ministry of Education, leaving that to the *laender* and city-states. We concentrated here on the Exchange program. West Germany has had 13,000 exchanges to date! This is the largest number of any country, and is about as much as all the others countries of Europe combined. Many of the "leaders" and teachers I have met in Washington, through the Washington International Center and the Teacher Exchange program. I asked many times about their effect on their country since their return. I was assured that "exchange" is the most effective of all media for influencing a country and its people, and I believe it is. I saw charts and reports which seem to prove this in the Exchange office in Bonn. I only wish there were more "case studies," which would illustrate in simple, but dramatic form just *how* and *where* these exchanges have taken root in Germany's soil for the benefit of all mankind.

One of our most interesting experiences was the Odenwaldschule near Heppenheim (on the road between Frankfurt and Heidelberg). This is a pioneer "progressive" school dating back to the 1920's. It barely survived Hitler and has now been restored to its experimental role. It operates in a schoolhouse straight out of Disneyland.

From 1945 to 1950 German Exchanges were handled through the Department of the Army; since 1950 by the Department of State. In that time several thousand American educators went to Germany to work with German education on teacher training, curriculum, textbook revision and writing, social sciences, current events, *etc.* Many of these American are my friends, with whom I have often discussed what they tried to do in Germany. After seeing Germany myself, even if briefly, I still have some lingering doubts as to the enthusiastic reports of "progress" made by these teams who worked here. I say this reluctantly, fully aware of the difficult assignment they undertook and that progress is slow and hard to measure in an occupied country. Perhaps this program will show itself in years to come. At present the school situation in Germany is still very spotty.

This country which passed the first compulsory attendance law in modern times (1617) has, from some standpoints, made a quick educational recovery. The Germans are an adaptable people. They have restored full-time schooling to age 14 (in some city-states to 15). Their Gymnasium is still a fine "elite" school. It is perhaps significant that few of the many thousands of U. S. Armed Forces and diplomatic personnel send their children to German schools—though some do attend

German elementary schools. The reasons most often given are too much drill, discipline, and the problem of language.

A significant educational development, especially in Germany, is the Dependent Area School for Armed Forces Personnel children, and other Americans, etc. These "federally aided" American-type high schools are a chapter in themselves which deserves thorough exploration as to their influence and impact on German education and Germany, and on the teachers themselves when they return to the U. S.

Several studies exist of German education. One of the best is entitled *The West German Educational System* (136 pp. 1953, Army Historical Division, HICOG). It covers, in much greater detail, points I have only touched, tracing the program through denazification, authoritarianism, open-mindedness to new techniques and methods, and the hopes for the future. Perhaps the best reporting on West Germany and her problems and progress is in a pamphlet entitled *Report on Democratic Institutions in Germany* by Hans Wallenberg, issued May 1956 by the American Council on Germany (93 pp). Chapter VII on "Problems in Education" I found especially helpful. Those who believe that a firm foundation has been laid for democratic education in Germany (and those who do not) should read this chapter. Chapter IX is useful on "Pro and Anti-American Tendencies." The author claims there is less Anti-American feeling in Germany than in most other European countries belonging to NATO. I am not so sure.

The Teacher Associations of Germany seem satisfied with the "present high level of general education and high standard of living," although there is a lack of a real educational program for the great mass of children, little teaching on current affairs, and a "narrowness" in the teacher training programs.

Quo Vadis? The answer is not easy. Germany's political, economic, and military activity is so interwoven with her educational problem that it is hard to neglect them in this report, even if necessary. It seems as if the main threats to German democracy come from the Soviet Union, from the Germans themselves, and to a lesser extent from the Americans who have been here a long time. There is conservatism and neutralism evident and the over-all problem of Germany's role in the family of nations. There are many influences evident of United States thought in education. The younger teachers have been most affected by these. Whether German education can again be perverted to selfish ends remains for time to tell.

Forgive and forget are two important words in dealing with Germany. It is necessary to forgive, and this we seem to have done, in the United States, quite well. How one can forget that only 25,000 Jews remain of an estimated half-million is a miracle of the mind's adjustability. Many have forgotten, both in Germany and at home in the United States; some have not.

Not having had an opportunity to see East Germany, I cannot make the contrasts and comparisons necessary and useful.

It occurs to me, however, that, if in my report I seem discouraged about the results, or perhaps impatient, or sceptical, everything I have personally reported should be weighed before passing judgment on these questions: (1) What would it have been like if the U. S. (and France and Great Britain) had not made the effort in West Germany? (2) What would it have been like if the Germans had won the war, and not us?

Schooling in Austria

Austria, where we stayed one week, is of special interest for several reasons other than scenic and musical. Many educators overlook the fact that Vienna was in the forefront of progressive educational development following World War I. The city school authority (*Stadt Schulrat*), whose offices I visited, has always been extremely experimental in its approach in contrast to the National Ministry of Education and the *laender*, which are ultra-conservative and strongly influenced by religious educational ideas.

The glories of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the long reign of Franz Joseph are only forty years past and Austria today offers an object lesson, especially to an American, of what can happen to a once great country and civilization. This lesson is perhaps stronger here than in Italy or France, because evidence of these great days in Austria is so near you can almost "see and feel" it—in spite of the German and Russian occupations. The lesson of "If it can happen to them, it can happen to any nation" is stronger here than in any other country visited to date. And the contrast between Germany and Austria is to be reckoned with. Vienna, they told us, is "coming back" quickly. We found many indications of this; yet it still has a long way to go by the educational yardstick.

History teaching in Austria proceeds to 1848. Why? Because, after 108 years, political and emotional feelings still run very high—too high for teachers to dare deal with events that have occurred since. A few select students do get to study the period up to the end of the Empire in 1918, but no attempt is made to study any history from 1918 on.

There is an "inertia" toward meeting the present and the future in education. On the "plus" side is the teaching of languages. On the "minus" side is the usual European controversy over secondary education and the preservation of an elite system.

Austrian educational statistics must be measured in terms of the Russian occupation areas which are evident, without anyone to point them out, as you drive through the countryside. One out of eight of the population goes to school. One of these eight gets to go on to secondary school. Of the hundred thousand who start secondary school, $\frac{1}{4}$ go on to higher and special schools—in other words, your chances are one in 32 of surviving the elimination process and finishing college.

In Austria, public and private schools exist side by side following an act of 1869, amended to 1883. Children start at six, must pass the "elimination" examination between 11 and 12 to go on. Greek is still taught, and Latin. For the "non-academic," there is a program in the sciences. Teacher training, at present, seems to offer little hope for widened educational horizons in the future—with small recognition from the universities of Vienna, Araz, and Innsbruck. While there are faculties in theology, law and political science, art and music education—all other education is a step-child. Austrians talk of prolonging the period of compulsory education from eight to nine years; but they have not as yet accomplished eight.

In contrast to 13,000 exchanges in Germany, from 1950 to 1954, Austria has had 690, with 276 Americans going to Austria. This, however, is relatively large when compared with other countries. The Peace Treaty puts new significance on Exchange in this "easternmost outpost of Western thought and influence in Europe" (one could almost as easily say "westernmost outpost of Eastern thought and influence in Europe"). Austrians are a friendly people. Was it Ben Johnson who said, "It is better to suffer wrong than to do it, and happier to be sometimes cheated than not to trust." If Salzburg (even without its music festival) is any indication of what Austria could be like in "the good old days," it is certainly worth reviving for the good of all mankind.

Schooling in Liechtenstein

Liechtenstein, which we found after crossing the borders of three countries four times, is a 17-mile-long principality of 13,000 population and a delight to visit en route to Switzerland. It is in the very center of the European continent, and is literally a "Valley of Peace," dating back to a Roman colony of 13 B. C. Great stress is put on education since the constitution of 1862. Each village has a handsome elementary school. There are private schools for girls as well as a convent school of "household" economics. It certainly pays in tourism and peaceful pursuits to be too small to be a country, and too insignificant to be swept up in Europe's wars.

Schooling in Switzerland

A week's visit to Switzerland was an object lesson for Europe and for us. Here different "nationalities" live together in unity and form one of the stablest nations on the continent. Certainly a common language is not conditional for "making" this nation! There are evidences of deep moral and religious roots which helped Switzerland grow and survive. Turbulent Europe needs to have pounded into its collective head the lesson of Switzerland (perhaps better than the lesson of the United States) for the possibilities of *more* cooperation, and even confederation and unification of all Europe.

Educationally, Switzerland is more like the United States than any other European country. As in the United States, education is principally a state (canton) and local function. The federal government is without constitutional authority to determine what shall be taught in, or to regulate the administration of, the public schools of the several cantons, or the private schools. Since each canton enacts its own laws for education, the school systems in the Swiss Confederation vary from canton to canton (there are 22). There is, however, as in the United States, a similarity in the over all pattern. The language spoken in various localities determines the "official" language of instruction in schools in that locality as well as regional and denominational features. The many universities in Switzerland offer an incentive for continuing education which is refreshing to note in Basel, Bern, Freiburg, Geneva, Lausanne, Neuchatel, Zurich, and St. Gall. Freiburg and Geneva, have Institutes of the Science of Education and Lausanne has a School of Social Sciences.

Swiss schools show a striking unity of purpose and respect for freedom of conscience and belief. They do an outstanding job on pre-primary education, called "nests," and on language teaching with usage and meaning stressed. This is one *good* way to promote international cooperation. Academic standards are high and here, as in the rest of Europe, the "weak" fall by the wayside. A separate report could be written on the excellent private schools alone. It is not chance that sends many European, American, and other children to these schools. Their reputation is well earned. Another separate report could be made on the unique International School here in Geneva which offers many lessons and experiences for schools all over the world which are attempting to bring the world into the classroom.

Statistically, one out of every five Swiss "starts" school and one of the five goes on to secondary education. Of the 100,000 in secondary education, one of every six can go on to higher education—but only one out of every 30 who starts school in primary level makes the university grade. In Switzerland there is evidence that schools and teachers have been in constant touch with the people.

With its international flavor, international relations and current events would *seem* to receive the attention they deserve. But this is misleading, for the European pattern of neglect of these areas still prevails, outside of language education—Neuchatel seems to be a notable exception. This education conscious country, with its backgrounds in Rousseau and Pestalozzi, has much to offer the educational world in reassessing its role in the world in which we want to continue to live. More exchange than now exists is needed—and better.

While Iceland has the oldest of all existing parliaments, Switzerland is the oldest republic of modern times. These are facts we ought to stress more in the United States.

From Europe to Asia

In Asia there is an air of expectancy toward the future and the overwhelming force of people. One is constantly reminded of the following lines from John Hersey's *A Single Pebble*:

"... and they were satisfied (or so I thought) to exist in Dark Ages, while I lived in a time of enlightenment, and was not satisfied."

We left from Paris by air for Asia; thus, ending six months in Europe, some dozen countries, 20,000 car miles, a panoramic composite of many vistas, schools, hotel rooms and restaurants, a better understanding we hope of Europe, and education, and the United States—and perhaps, most of all, of ourselves.

In Asia we have had to compete for air space and hotels with the UNESCO delegates on their way to New Delhi, the Olympians, and Middle East jitters. We were finally able to leave by Air France for Istanbul and Beirut. Then by BOAC, from Beirut to Karachi, arriving in Pakistan the morning of October 25. This meant a 24-hour flight schedule which went off very well, though we all arrived a bit tired and sleepy, having covered nine countries and some 5,000 miles.

It was interesting flying on U. N. Day. In Europe we found no mention of U. N. Day or Week although we searched all the papers accumulated on the planes—and even asked about those we could not read ourselves. In Karachi we arrived in the midst of extensive U. N. activities, displays, receptions, talks, *etc.* which seem to be standard practice in Asia.

* * * *

What should be America's role? "When we try to serve the world (or to understand it) we touch what is divine. We get our dignity, our courage, our joy in work because of the greatness of the far-off and always in sight, always attainable, never at any moment attained. Service is one of the ways by which a tiny insect like one of us can get a purchase on the whole universe. If we find the job where we can be of use, we are hitched to the star of the world and move with it."—*Richard Cabot*

* * * *

"Very much of what we call the progress of today consists in getting rid of false ideas, false conceptions of things, and in taking a point of view that enables us to see the principles, ideas, and things in right relation to each other."—*W. D. Hoard*

Schooling in Pakistan

We arrived at the airport in Karachi in a superliner which received the petrol to make it airborne again from a rubber-tired wagon pulled by a camel. Thus the contrasts began.

Karachi, the capital city where we spent ten days, is not Pakistan. There are Lahore and Peshawar and many places in between that should be seen. Nevertheless, Karachi is where we remained during the Suez crisis and where we saw what "partition" means.

The parents of four of every ten Pakistani children aged five answer the question, "Why should my child go to school?" by never even sending them. The government seems to be fighting a losing battle against inertia and indifference to learning and progress. Of the 60 per cent who get to a first-grade class, only one in 500 reaches college. This statistic is important in examining the various "technical assistance" programs now functioning in Pakistan, mainly at the university level.

The International Cooperation Administration is operating through its Inter-College Contract Exchange Program joint arrangements with a number of Pakistani institutions of higher education; for example the State College of Washington and the University of Punjab, Lahore; Texas Agricultural and Mechanical and the University of Dacca, East Pakistan; Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical and the University of Peshawar; Indiana University and Kyhu Medical College; University of Pennsylvania and the University of Karachi; and New Mexico College of Agricultural and Mechanical and the University of Sind. This is the largest U. S. inter-college contract program in the world with one country—with a budget of over \$1,700,000, and some 60 or more American university specialists here. Much of this money goes for the exchanges and administering the program. These persons when they go into the villages and "get their hands dirty" undoubtedly are helping.

Ford Foundation has two large polytechnic institutes, and the Colombo nations have their own "self-help" plan. From what I could see in Pakistan, the lower the levels of assistance, the greater the immediate and long-scale return will be. More teacher education, sanitation, health rules, and food production are immediately needed, also books in simple English on simple subjects.

Asian politics are complicated and often corrupt. Pakistan has lacked enlightened leadership since Mohammed Ali Jinnah. The rich land-owning *Zamindar's* still control too much land and do too little to increase Pakistani progress toward a better economy and future.

The Arab ties of Muslim thought were, of course, more evident while we were there than usual because of events in Egypt. They pose a problem for Pakistan, Asia, and the world.

It seems to me the number one problem of this country is education—centering around the need for food, and the need for understanding how to deal with this problem. It is one thing to supply food, another

to see that it is used properly and leads to better health and nutrition habits. Political confusion does not help in this complicated society. This is an *educational* problem because the solution must come from Pakistan's own culture—not super-imposed from without—and from their own emerging leaders.

There are dedicated people here fighting a difficult battle against ignorance, poverty, disease, lassitude, corruption, and the scourge of eastern "ways" on western "tummies" and health. Sometimes it seems, to some I have talked to, an almost insurmountable task.

There is segregation in Pakistani education in that only one of ten seats in the primary grades is open to female children. With a population of 76 million and only four million in school, the illiteracy rate of 86 per cent does not seem high. We went out to Jamia Taleem Milli to see the Urdu educational experiment there, now celebrating its fourth anniversary. We also visited the Parsee high school and the Ministry of Education planned a full program for us.

As we were about to leave Karachi for New Delhi, we decided to give our room bearer at the hotel a token of our appreciation for his many kindnesses to us. Among the gifts was a dog-eared, paper-covered copy of *Anna and the King of Siam* which we had all read in anticipation of our visit to Thailand. When we gave it to him, he broke down and cried. It seemed we had given him the first book he had ever owned. He said he would not be able to read it since he had never learned to read, but his two oldest children, age 13 and 11, would love to have it since they had learned English in school.

Education is so inextricably tied up with the future of Pakistan that it is too bad it seems to have become a political football. One bright light is the "village aid program" which is based on basic needs and self-help leading to independence. Ford Foundation has helped here. The work being done in several of the technical "high schools" and schools of domestic science is of a fundamental nature which holds hope for the future. More basic education is needed, however, before results can be shown, quantitatively and qualitatively in secondary-education programs. Colombo programs of self-help seem more realistic here.

There are unique problems of recruiting for Fulbright exchange in Pakistan. While 259 Pakistanis have come to the United States since 1949, only 59 Americans have gone to Pakistan. Very few teachers venture here. By American standards the living is not easy.

As an American ally and "cornerstone" of U. S. friendship in Asia, Karachi makes at least one American wonder about our foreign policy thinking. I heard that, in East Pakistan, Russian aid consists of salt for the people and village public health nurses.

In Karachi, poverty is endemic; literacy, widespread. The "amenities," as sensitive Pakistani citizens refer to them, are few and far between. Pakistan needs help, self-help—education, but not in isolation, or in a vacuum. One day we visited Mohammed Ali Jinnah's tomb. It is a

simple place on a hillside. It is symbolic, for below it is a mud and tent refugee *jungle* where some ten thousand human beings live in a football-sized field in indescribable filth, poverty, squalor, and disease. Jinnah, who helped make Pakistan a nation, asked that his grave be placed there as a constant reminder of how much still needs to be done in Pakistan. Democratic practices in Pakistan might well start soon with some freedoms *from* things—such as *from* want, hunger, disease, ignorance, *etc.*

Schooling in India

We spent five weeks in Nehru's India (since the death of Gandhi, he has been the cementing element which holds together an unusually diverse country of 377 million peoples of all classes, races, religions, colors, and tongues). India, the second most populous country in the world, places a high premium on education. Maulana Azad, a Moslem, (there are still 40 million in India) heads the Ministry of Education, and is Jawarhalal Nehru's deputy as Prime Minister. The goal, by 1961, is free compulsory education for all children up to the age of fourteen. The educational reconstruction, with primary emphasis on basic education, (imparting elementary education through productive activity in the form of basic crafts suited to local conditions) is the extension of a "pet" idea of Mahatma Gandhi, and is already well started in the age group of six to 14. If the world stays stable, they might just make it by 1961, for Nehru takes a great personal interest in the program and any critical evaluations of it.

I first saw Prime Minister Nehru, privately, for thirty-five minutes. He was tired when he greeted me at 6:30 on a Tuesday evening in November. He had spoken about Hungary in the Indian Parliament that day. He is small and quick with a surprisingly young, unlined face. His eyes are dark-circled and his symbolic rose was quite wilted; yet, he was charming and patient, friendly and talkative. I caught him peering through a slit in the panel to see who was coming in next when I came into his office in the Parliament building, too quickly! I had the impression that he could anticipate the thought behind the final period in my sentences before I was half-way through. When he was certain that my purpose in coming had no ulterior motive other than to meet him and ascertain "what manner of a man is this," he talked freely with me about many things and about travel, and the dreams one takes with one to distant historically romantic places. He has an acute sense of history.

Highly intelligent and intellectual, Prime Minister Nehru is yet a simple man interested in concepts of the mind and heart. He is essentially shy with a quick, warm smile, a fund of stories and anecdotes, a sense of humor which bubbles over from time to time, and the ability to listen—even to me.

He had read a report of an American woman educator, now in India, in which she had noted the lack of tensions among Indian school children. We skipped through a conversational "stew" consisting of sanskrit, Karachi and the refugee problem, Benares, history, schools, education, international educational activities, German philosophy, my family, Eisenhower Fellowships, etc.

I found myself searching for the searching thought, the quaint phrase, the apt quotation—to equal his matchless ones. He is a charming, cultured man, modest enough to keep me completely at ease. I learned later that after our interview he went to his regular office in the Secretariat and, aside from a quick dinner, worked until 2:00 A.M. My visit turned out to be more than a courtesy call. Mrs. Reid and Patricia and I were invited to breakfast with him the following morning. His invitation for breakfast was quickly given—and as quickly accepted. It was the gracious gesture of an essentially lonely man.

The rose in his coat was fresh and new when he greeted us the following morning in his residence. He had been up and working since six. He apparently is in excellent health.

So much has been written about Prime Minister Nehru that it is only with deepest humility that I record these simple impressions in the hope they may give an insight into his simple, yet complex personality. He was looking forward to his coming visit to the United States and the firsthand glimpses of history, to seeing our President—and to the good that might come of this visit.

Patricia and the Prime Minister took to each other, and it was again clear that seeing the world through the eyes of a 12-year old is one of the most enlightening and satisfying experiences that anyone can have. It would seem that, before children get to the point we adults do in our "superior intellectual growth," they have insights into things that perhaps we breed-out of ourselves by our experiences, our education, and our age. [Mr. Reid's daughter, Patricia, has described this breakfast in detail in the June 9, 1957 issue of *Parade* magazine. This article has been reprinted in the October 1957 issue of *STUDENT LIFE*, a monthly publication of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.]

As to what "good" means to Jawarhalal Nehru, who is the cornerstone of his country's (and perhaps Asia's) future, he quotes in his *Glimpses of World History*, which is a series of letters to his daughter, the poet, Rabindra Nath Tagore (Page 953, Lindsay Drummond Ltd., publishers, 4th edition).

Where the mind is without fear and the head is held high;
Where knowledge is free;
Where the world has not been broken up into fragments by narrow
domestic walls;
Where words come out from the depth of truth;
Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection;

Where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way into the dreary
desert sand of dead habit;

Where the mind is led forward by thee into ever-widening thought and
action—

Into that heaven of freedoms, my father, let my country awake.

After Nehru, leadership in India is a major problem; for most Indian political leaders seem either too old or much too young and politically (and internationally) immature to "take over" now.

India suffers from the peculiar evils of the educational examination system for "eliminating" candidates from the educational ladder. This seems especially true at the university level. There is an acute shortage of well-trained teachers and the teacher-training institutions are only in the developmental stage. Scales of pay are quite low and the status of educators is lower than some other professions, but higher than most. Language is a problem, for Hindi is not catching on as fast as was hoped. There are still Urdu, Tamil, and a host of other tongues which make English the prime necessity for communication. Unfortunately, only a small number of Indians speak it or write it as fluently and eloquently today as Nehru. India's parliament sounds like a democratic Tower of Babel. As in most of Asia, the educational "curve" narrows considerably from early to higher education. The bottleneck at the *top* is serious. While this is not the exclusive responsibility of the so-called "aid" programs, of which there are many in India; nevertheless, their efforts have not as yet measurably alleviated the problems of preparing people for existing and potential jobs in the professions.

India has a passionate desire for education. In Delhi alone there are more than 700 schools for a population of two million. Family life is strong in India and the drive to send children to schools is frantic. In the villages there are already hundreds of basic education community development projects in full swing and showing early results. Eighty-two per cent of all Indians live in villages. There is a large newspaper reading public. Good newspapers are available in English, Hindi, Urdu, and other tongues.

Indians support and believe in the U. N. and its specialized agencies with passionate and often childlike intensity. Whether they like some of their own leaders or not, they enjoy the voice afforded India at the U. N., for, by putting India front and center on the world stage, most of her people have a feeling of belonging and importance that Europeans and all Asiatics lack and need very badly. Indians may sometimes dislike certain tactics and viewpoints, but they read every word uttered and faithfully reprinted in voluminous detail in all the Indian papers.

Unfortunately caste has not yet disappeared in India. There is a preoccupation with Kashmir and relations with Pakistan as well as their other geographic neighbors—Red China and Russia. Girls do not as yet share equally in education.

Until the President's stand on Suez, United States stock in India was not very high. We had not had an Ambassador here for two of the last four years. The future of Asia as a "free" area able to choose democracy rather than communism seems to depend largely on the future of India. India it seems to us has chosen democracy, (its own brand—not necessarily ours). As long as Nehru is around, I think it will continue to do so.

Schooling in Thailand

This exotic, happy country where we spent just a few days enroute is all that *The King and I* makes it—and more. The first Thaiander we met in Bangkok was a modern-day version of Anna Leonowens whose experiences are related in *Anna and the King of Siam*. This pretty young teacher, a specialist in elementary education, studied for six years in the United States. She is the teacher of the present King's children, and we learned much from her about education in Thailand.

Thailand's 20 million people live in a land of plenty with few beggars. United States joint college-contract programs and their emphasis on teacher training schools are cutting through to the heart of Thailand's education problem and needs. There are still many other problems of a political and economic nature.

From the Pratom (the four-year primary program) on, attendance cannot be enforced, but it is the only level of school where education is now widespread. The Mattayom, or secondary schools, are a luxury for most as there are not nearly enough to go around. The examination system, with its obscure questioning pattern, operates here as a real hindrance to educational progress—as it does in most of Europe and Asia. Those who get through these first ten years of education have few opportunities to go on to pre-university courses because of school shortages and extreme selectivity. Many boys and girls selected for teacher training are not the best candidates, or best trained.

Students who go to the universities of Chulalongkorn, Kasetsart, and Thammasat are fortunate, yet they do not get the best education. The College of Education at Prasarnmit offers the real hope for the future of well-trained teachers understanding Thailand's educational problems. Teachers' salaries are very low. A major problem is the very poor teaching of English and well-qualified teachers from abroad are needed. The Fulbright and Smith-Mundt exchange programs have helped a little. Thailanders need simple reading materials in English, too. It is an exciting country with challenging possibilities which can show progress if old systems of political *status quo* can be improved.

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"Education has no terminus and he who is willing to serve through teaching will never lack pupils."—*Ahmed Bokhari*, United Nations

Schooling in Hong Kong (and Kowloon)

This British Crown colony where we stayed briefly on our way home is the last vestige of the Empire's colonialism on the Asiatic continent. It was a happy surprise and welcome stop, with an exciting descent to the small airfield nestled between the mountains. Culturally Chinese with British overtones, it is one of the nicest combination of the modern and old cities we visited.

Our stay was too short for me to evaluate its educational system. Fortunately a former Fulbright professor has prepared a very thoughtful and thought-provoking 23-page report on "Education in Hong Kong: Some Observations and Impressions." This I read with grateful interest.

Briefly, I learned that there has been a tremendous school population growth. The Chinese have a profound respect for scholars and learning. The schools are relatively free from propaganda. The educational machinery is complex, as it seems to be everywhere! There are many private schools. The supply of well-prepared teachers is limited. Translating English and American texts to a Hong Kong situation has caused great difficulties in instruction. Fees are required for education and private schools prevail.

Hong Kong as an international, cosmopolitan city offers excellent opportunities for studying the meeting of East and West. At the Diocesan school where I visited, the children were speaking and studying English in the first grade—and doing very well too. Actually my daughter, Patricia, is the one who should describe our visit to the Diocesan school. When the student body found out that she was on the school grounds, they lost all interest in "older" Americans. She went from classroom to classroom, meeting the students and answering their many (and much more interesting I thought) questions on a variety of subjects. Children, it would seem, are more interested in other children! It should not be forgotten that Hong Kong provides a showcase for both Asian and Western civilization in a critical area.

Schooling in Japan

Arriving just before Christmas, we found Japan in a festive mood, but nursing a collective flu virus. The largest Santa Claus that I have ever seen was in a department store in Tokyo on the *Ginza*, the leading shopping street. It dominated the entrance to an emporium which rivaled Macy's. There seem to be more people in Tokyo than in any city in Asia. Perhaps before too long it may become the largest city in the world.

Here I saw the 100-page report, *Education in Japan (1956)*, *Graphic Representation*—one of the best such reports I have seen on this trip. It is put out by the Ministry of Education. The text is matched by beautiful, yet simple, charts which give one an insight into Japan

and her educational system hard to get in any other way. Fortunately, in the report, all is related to the nature of Japan, her people, industry and economy, government, a brief history, and her educational aspirations. The text is in question form, supplying the answers to "What are the general backgrounds of Japanese education?" "How do social education facilities function?" and many more.

Japan had a good (if, as it turned out, somewhat perverted,) educational system before Pearl Harbor. It still has one now. The effects of American efforts to bring democracy to Japanese education are evident in many ways. It is hard to determine how permanent an impact the two American educational missions brought in during the occupation period will eventually have. Now, as Japan joins the U. N. family of nations and changes her governmental leaders, there seems to be a swing away from American influence and methods.

A Ministry of Education "leader" who had just returned from the United States was quite frank to me in his comments about American teacher training, the teaching of nationalism in American schools, and the efforts to get the Japanese "to do it our way." He praised our work in social studies and current events. Japan's 89 million people have come back from World War II as remarkably as have the Germans. I saw little evidence of bomb damage remaining in Tokyo.

Japanese teachers are aware that they must take an active part in their country's moral, spiritual, political, and economic development if they are to avoid the mistakes of the 1940's. Almost all children go to school, less than four per cent are absent because of family poverty. Educational standards are quite high.

The trend toward strong criticism and reconsideration of educational policy during the occupation period, since the conclusion of the peace treaty, should be carefully watched. The Japanese are also critical of the American introduced social studies (for the former ethics, civics, current events, geography, and history). The criticism comes from educators, from the general public, and from some industrialists who want to "return to the past" and to have more moral and industrial education taught in the schools.

Now, teachers' salaries are paid wholly from the federal treasury, making them national public service personnel. It seems that criticism of occupation policies has become a political football, tending to distort further the validity and objectivity of some of the criticism. Our occupation forces are everywhere evident.

In exchange, a happy trend is the *two-year* grants to 12 American students so they can have enough time to learn the language and culture. The kindergarten movement seems to have "caught on" in Japan. There are seven independent national teachers colleges, and thirty-nine departmental training colleges for teachers in Japan. They have been colleges rather than normal schools since 1949. A Japanese

educator friend told me we can learn from Japan in teacher education! As a leader-grantee in the United States, he was shocked by discrimination and surprised by our teaching of moral and spiritual values.

Schooling in Hawaii

From Tokyo to Wake Island and then Oahu, we "gained" a day crossing the International Date Line. Every person traveling through Hawaii should be given an opportunity to examine the school system and compare it with that in his own country. Since the concept of colonialism looms so large in the world today, it has been a delightful "bonus" to visit a United States territorial possession with over 100 years of history behind its present needs and desires. While its problems are not 100 per cent solved, the blending of peoples here—American, English, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Portuguese, Polynesian, and a host of others—is something to see firsthand. There is practically no illiteracy here, no sanitation problems—one can drink the water, eat the food, *etc.* It is truly a paradise on earth at least to three travel-weary Americans.

Punahou School in Oahu is the oldest school west of the Mississippi, and much of Hawaiian education predates that of our mainland. There are 305 public and private schools with an enrollment of 146,000 school-age pupils. One of every six in Hawaii is in an elementary school. One of every ten is in a secondary school, and one of 80 is in an institution of higher learning. What a contrast to Asia!

Hawaii is an example of what "enlightened aid" can do for a country, both ways. I wish the leading statesmen of all nations and their representatives could come this way and see Hawaii and its people and the role that education plays here.

In Conclusion¹

B52 planes now circle the globe in 45 hours. Over 70 years ago Jules Verne imagined a trip around the world in eighty days. We had 310 days to explore twenty countries. It is still, however, a big world with bigger problems that need creative thought, imagination, planning, action, and leadership through the combined efforts of all who believe in the perfectability of mankind.

Objective Reporting

I would have to say that we Americans are not quite as successful as some of the reports, including my own, tend to make us believe. I think there is some kind of a drug, a tranquilizing effect, attached to writing a report which makes one look at the optimistic side and see the best in things, and assume that for public consumption we ought to

¹On May 14, 1957, Mr. Reid appeared before the U. S. Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange at their request. Many of these statements are taken from his presentation and the discussion which followed.

deal with the "oranges" in the barrel and tell people about the "lemons" when we see them privately. If I seem to have left my rose-colored glasses home, please forgive me. I am aiming at constructive criticism if what I say can really be called criticism. According to a story in our household, if my daughter says something is wrong, I call it *petulant fault finding*; if my wife says something is wrong, I call it *nagging*; if I find something wrong, I refer to it as *constructive criticism*! Critical would perhaps be more precise, for we are living in critical times. I believe that by recognizing this we may be able to improve our efforts and help our country in its great task.

This is sometimes hard for many Americans, who are eternal optimists, to do. I think we are in a serious situation throughout the world in terms of our relationships with people. We have not always gotten our message across to most people—what we are, what we stand for as a nation, and why they ought to at least understand us and perhaps respect us and our motives. They do not necessarily need to love us. I think it is a ridiculous American assumption that those we help must love us. Integrity of goals and actions can be understood and respected. We must try to make them clear to more peoples in the world, as well as to their leaders.

The role of Washington in terms of relationships on foreign policy and especially exchange needs to be re-examined. A United States Information Agency officer, who administers a State Department International Educational Exchange Service program in the field, and who is never exactly sure to whom he is responsible, works under some difficulties in accomplishing his program which are delimiting in terms of what he can accomplish. This has to be thought through, and I know the question of cooperation and coordination between departments and agencies of the government is now under consideration. I certainly saw and can cite "chapters-and-verse" evidence of how sometimes lack of same defeats the very nature of what we are after.

Exchange of Persons

I have a feeling we need to go even further back in exchange and take students right out of high school. If we believe in exchange, we believe in a process, not just a one-shot experience. We believe that we are picking people who have a perceptiveness and a sensitivity to change, to differentness, to other cultures, other civilizations, and other challenges; that they do not reject what is unfamiliar; and that they have a zeal for their task. We must find them "young" enough to go through a process of assimilation and absorption which will make them aware with what they are dealing, and yet never let them lose sight of who they are.

If you pick the "best" ones early enough and expose them early enough, you will have a better process of selection and follow-up in the long run than this business of saying, "Well, he looks all right and

his record is fine. He *has* three degrees and he *has* taught for a long time. We will try him out. He seems a *little* difficult with people and his wife didn't impress us too much, but we will send him anyway." We need to move the process of selection backward and find out from labor, business, agriculture, the arts, athletics, education, *etc.*, who the people are coming up through their ranks who already have shown ability to meet human challenges. A man who can move from a plant in Kentucky to a plant in Texas and make the adjustment well to that change *may* be the type of individual we are looking for. I don't mean drifters because, unfortunately in this exchange business, we do get some drifters, people who are sure that they are not happy where they are and who think, if they can transfer their happiness to a new locale, the problems will decrease. Too often they increase.

In terms of my experience, I find that exchange of persons is one of the most important aspects of United States foreign policy abroad. I would also have to add that exchange is not perfect—in terms of selection of individuals who go, in terms of the commitments that they make once they go, in terms of the people who work with them as their advisers in the various countries to which they go, and in terms of the over-all relationships of the exchange program to the whole problem of what the United States is trying to accomplish abroad.

I came back with a feeling that we ought to encourage repeat visits for exceptional exchangees in private as well as governmental programs. What is so magical about an exchange fellow five years after he has been one? He is an ex-fellow. Most of his experiences are ex-experiences. The world changes so rapidly these days. If you find people who really learn and apply their experiences, you ought to recultivate them, you ought to refertilize their knowledge by giving them another opportunity. I agree that there is need for longer periods of exchange so that the cultural shocks that we all hear about will be lessened. Just the general opportunity to adjust to a situation more slowly should become a part of the day-by-day living in a foreign culture.

I would send more teacher training people on exchange for this early stage. I would take in more teachers, elementary and secondary. The teacher program, small as it is, is the gem of the whole exchange program. These are the "firing line operators." They go into a country to work immediately in a classroom and they sink-or-swim on their own efforts. I am not guessing at this. I checked into each Embassy with the cultural officers and the Ambassador, when available, in the twenty countries I visited. When you talk about how effective this program is, what sort of evaluation, what sort of follow-up, most of the information given turns out to be statistical.

"Let me show you our files. We can show you that 221 people were exchanged last year," and that sort of thing. You say, "Can't you give me some indication, some case studies of what is happening?" "Why yes, there *is* an American teacher in a nearby town. He must be a re-

markable fellow. I have never met him. I am meaning to bring him into my office. We get reports on him almost every week. He made a speech on the Boy Scout movement in America last Monday; Tuesday he spoke about great American sports; on Wednesday he is addressing a woman's club about volunteer organizations in America; and Thursday he is doing this, *etc.* The children and their parents love him and he teaches 160 children every day. They would like to keep him here for two or three years. He seems to be a remarkable fellow."

What is the remarkable quality that he has? Well, through the give-and-take of education, of teaching in a town in America, *etc.*, this fellow learned how to get along with people. He is curious, isn't above his audience. He is a learner and a doer and, in terms of his abilities, he is making a remarkably fine record.

I think we need longer-range planning on this matter. We have been in the exchange business long enough to know how it operates as a day-by-day administrative process. Where we have fallen down is in thinking through the problem of making exchange a lasting educational experience, not only for the exchangees, but also for all the people who are involved—the host countries, the volunteers, the highly distinguished Commission that administers the program, the government officials, the Congressmen, the teachers and, most important of all, the countries that believe in it.

I'm afraid I'm saying that the severest indictment of our exchange know-how is that we have not availed ourselves of the knowledge people have gained in this experience and have not as yet used this knowledge to evaluate our foreign policy thinking to see if we are on the right track. I do not think we are using what we know. Our knowledge in exchange is perhaps the most valid knowledge that we have.

I do not think we have tapped more than the beginnings of the exchange possibilities for this country in relation to our interest in the rest of the world. As we move toward greater programs, as we must, I would hope that quality will be a high criterion, that objectives will be carefully thought through, that evaluation would be a continuing process, and that follow-up would mean follow-up in terms of individuals, not in terms of what we want these individuals to do for us. Our President has said that exchanges are "... something that can well become the most meaningful thing that has happened in our time."

Russia's Role in Asia

Let me take one country for an example of what I mean. When I arrived in India in November at the time of the UNESCO international conference, the Indians were getting ready to welcome the representatives of 80 countries and many more observers. They had set up a number of exhibits to show their way of life and to show other aspects of Asian culture, especially Buddhism because this was the 2500th anniversary of the birth of Buddha.

In New Delhi, there was an exhibit at Hyderabad House on "Public Education in the USSR." I was told about this by a former officer of the Indian Embassy in Washington. I must report that it was a good exhibit. It was simple. It did not try to impress these people with the fact that Russia had *all* the answers in public education. Yes, there were the usual platitudes, the quotations from Lenin and other leaders about the importance of free, universal mass education, but that was only window dressing. The really impressive parts were the simple things they had imported from their country of what the children were actually doing. While I was there, I could see Indian children from a radius of 250 miles being brought into this building to see this exhibit. To me it seemed the thing that impressed them most was that this *was attainable*, possible for them, too. They looked around and said, "This is interesting. I'm going to try that when I get back in class." You could hear this kind of conversation in English there. There was nothing overwhelmingly impressive of the kind of thing the United States was exhibiting at the same time on the "Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy." This is a kind of vague subject for Indian public consumption at this stage of the game.

The other aspect I noticed was that the Russians in Asia spoke the native languages. They spoke Tamil, a South Indian dialect, and Urdu and Hindi and a dozen other languages. More important, they have a distinct advantage in an Asiatic country because they are Asiatics. They use the theory of *comparability to its fullest*. We are the strangers.

The Russians I saw seldom complained about the hotel rooms and the "amenities" and they seem to know how to get along with people. Therefore, when I read statements saying how can the peoples in the world who believe in democracy fall for this line, I used to believe that they couldn't, but I am not as sure now. One must be impressed by the caliber of their representatives and their "know-how" with people.

The Element of Time

May I say something concerning the element of time. What you do with it on these trips is terribly important. The Under Secretary in the Department of Public Information of the United Nations, gave me the best advice that one could have on a trip. He said, "Let things happen to you. Don't preconceive all of the things you're going to see on an adventure of this nature and scope. There is no one in the world who can really tell you exactly what you as an individual want to get out of this experience, because this is an individual kind of thing. And if you don't leave time, then you will be sorry because some of the best things that will happen to you will happen as a result of this "leisure" that you have in your program." He certainly was right. All along the way there were experiences of that kind that could not have happened if I had allowed myself to become a creature of program makers in some parts of the world whose idea of a "good" schedule is to start you

off at 8:30 in the morning and end you up at 9:30 or 10:00 or even midnight, so you really do not ever have time to assess what you have done. You are like the squirrel in the cage. When you try to synthesize your experiences, your conscience bothers you a little. You tell, in your notes, the details of how many people you have seen and how many conversations you had. It becomes a kind of statistical numbers game we play with ourselves. I think sometimes it tends to make us lose sight of our real goals. Fortunately many who travel understand this and help make their observations qualitative.

Most of you know the phrase "venture capital," but I think this is "adventure capital." It is a kind of necessary risk in travel for some may take advantage of their opportunity. I would recommend very highly that all who go on trips ought to be given a little leeway to do what are necessary aspects of anyone's life on the road. You *do* want to travel. You *do* want to tour. You *do* want to see the Taj Mahal, and you *do* want to see your friends. If your conscience is bothering you about it, you don't do any of it well and you don't accomplish the specific things for which you went on the trip, either. Sometimes you learn more about your objective way off next to somebody you never saw before, at the Prado museum, than you might sitting in the official sessions that are set up in such overwhelming numbers.

Who's Way of Life?

I have been asked to comment on the communist influence in Asia. I don't think we are winning in Asia. I think we are losing in spite of the fact that a great many of the countries of Asia, especially India, are predisposed toward our way rather than toward another way. Unfortunately, we Americans have been dealing in absolutes with a lot of the people in the world and, when you offer absolutes, when you say to people "It's either or," you have got to be sure that you and they understand the "either" and the "or." To my mind many Asiatics understand the "either" of the Russians, but there is a real question as to whether they have a clear idea of what the "or" of the United States means for them. This failure to clarify our position has hurt us considerably.

I don't have answers that will immediately solve all our problems, but I am convinced that the influence of well-informed, sensitive people is perhaps the best influence in terms of objectives that we can exert all over the world. As one who has taught history, I am even more convinced that our way of life makes a lot of sense to a lot of people throughout the world if we are just good at presenting it clearly *through* people. I am not implying that others have to adopt our way of life. I learned enough about the cultures of other peoples, as a result of this trip, to know that that has been one of our mistakes. We have sometimes assumed that we could change cultures, customs, and religious patterns so that these people might up-build themselves economically.

Dorothy Canfield Fisher says, "To force opinion is like pushing the magnetized needle round until it points to where we wish the North Star stood."

Insulationism

What I'm saying is that, today in spite of the best system of communications in the world, Americans at home generally tend to *insulate* rather than *isolate* themselves. We have a tendency to "let the bland lead the bland" here, to assume that because we are a great nation and because we have been thrust into a position of world leadership, that, by a kind of osmotic process and by "old" diplomacy methods—which are quite obsolete today—we can get our message across. We should be ready for "people's diplomacy" and a true voice in America for foreign affairs. There is a growing constituency which needs to be enlisted in this crusade.

Interest in Education

Everyone who has seen the universities of Asia knows what a tremendous problem we have when we try to influence a system which is wholly alien to our approach to universities. I refer to the external examination pattern of professors rarely meeting classes, of students who come up through the program largely because they are financially influential, or because they want to add a prestige title to the name card they carry. The very nature of the present system of "higher" education in Asia slows to a snail's pace the whole purpose of what we are trying to do through professional and student exchange in these countries.

On the other hand, there is a tremendous up-surge in all these countries of Asia, a revolution of expectancy, and they are all interested in more education for more people—and I'm not talking about literacy only. I mean "basic education," which prepares people for the civilization in which they live. In this area, the United States of America has perhaps the greatest knowledge of any peoples of the world and we have not used it except in the slightest degree in these countries, in terms of *their* interest, *their* desires, and *their* needs. Education of this sort happens to be a non-political kind of interest. This is one area where these people are not suspicious of you, just very curious. They want to know how many children go to school in the United States, when do they start, what kind of a curriculum do they get, how long do they attend school.

They go on, "You mean you don't eliminate ninety per cent of your children at age 12 through a control examination which we borrowed from Europe and continue all over Asia? You mean that the whole future of a child's education and place in society is not determined at age 12 forevermore in the U. S. A. and that he can, in your country, escape this pattern?" By the educational standards now operating in most of Asia, some of our distinguished men in America today would never have gotten beyond the fifth grade in school.

A knowledge of comparative education is a basic and serious problem in our relations with these people. We are working at this. I feel that we have only reached the first rung of the educational ladder. Except through exchange, how can we reach these people? The "leaders" and "specialists," and *classroom teachers* have been, for my money, the best part of the exchange program. In terms of leaders and specialists, we do not always choose the right people. We tend to pre-dispose who will be the future leader. We have not always been right. I think there is a need, particularly, for sometimes bringing people who are dissenters to this experience, and that is a matter of selection. They need not always to be "safe" people, fully accredited, carefully screened and selected.

A lot of Americans abroad recognize this, more and more. In Germany when I was there, they were considering sending a former Hitler Youth leader because they thought he *was* a leader, regardless of all other aspects of his past. They had watched him develop under their own eyes and felt they had here a potentially effective person for a new Germany.

Culture

Let me illustrate further by a conversation I had with an American serving abroad. "You know, my real problem here is that I have a cultural unit that isn't very cultured." I asked him to elaborate and he said, "Look, the people I have in my office just don't impress the nationals, either at the top levels in terms of their intellectual pursuits, their interest in art, in music, in science, and so on; or at their bottom levels, because they are a little above mingling at these levels." He continued, "Now, in contrast, the Russian counterparts here in this city are terrific fellows. I see them around and I am impressed with them. They know everything. They have been trained in all the languages. They know the history and the literature and the art and the music of these countries, and they do mingle with all levels." I assume they get their training in Russia and I think we have underestimated their abilities in these educational directions.

"Well," I said to this American, "Don't you have somebody in your whole staff who could do this job?" He thought for a while and said, "Yes, I have a very good man here. He works on economic affairs. I could ask him to do this. He would answer me in one of two ways. He would submit his resignation immediately, or drop dead from the shock if I asked him to be my cultural officer."

The point of this story indicates, too often, where we place culture in our scheme of operations in various countries. Short term assignments also hurt. It isn't often this bad, fortunately. Fortunately, also, many of our overseas representatives are very able. They are fine. They compare with any representatives in the world, but they are a minority group, and fighting a system which often defeats them because the

same kind of leveling down to mediocrity operates sometimes in our foreign posts even more ruthlessly than at home.

I am firmly convinced that our real approach in these countries is through culture, but culture in a sense that perhaps we need to clarify for ourselves. First it involves dealing with these people in terms of *their* interests and *their* desires and *their* abilities with a healthy respect for *their* culture and not just shoving things we think they should be doing down their throats—"A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still" sort of thing. Wherever I went, I found that the sensitivity to being used is much greater in the so-called underdeveloped areas of the world than it is in our country.

Educational Purposes and Practices

Through what process do these Russians get their training? They get it, if I understand it—I have never been to Russia—by a kind of selective leadership that starts very early in their educational system and which we in the United States of America have been neglecting, though we are aware of the problem. We have a growing problem of education for the gifted. This is now becoming the real manpower problem in our country.

Our program of mass education, all the way through to college, unfortunately has caused some leveling down, a "pride in mediocrity." There are, unfortunately, some elements in our society which nurture a pattern of operation which levels toward commonness. This becomes easier because of limited funds and heavy teaching loads.

We are dealing with two different educational philosophies. The United States on the one hand is striving for democracy and the full development of freedom for the individual through equality of educational opportunity. In Russia they have an autocracy and a compartmentalization of individuals to do a particular job for the State. With these as major qualifications this is the enigma we are in. We are gradually developing a "common" kind of educational system in this country, of educating our people to a level of equal mediocrity; whereas the Russians, who live under communism, have recognized the importance of the individual technician. Someone has said: "A technician is a man who understands everything about his job except its ultimate purpose and its place in the order of the universe." The Russians find him at the very lowest levels of education and pigeon-hole him almost immediately for a career in particular ways. We may not like this pigeonholing, but it is a kind of selection that perhaps we have neglected in this country. We need to end discrimination against the talented. We must react against the cult of mediocrity and recognize that equality does not mean conformity.

Sometimes our pride in democracy is equated with bedlam in education. The more confused the situation gets, the less leadership, the more everybody talks and nobody says anything of worth. This looks like

democracy. This is not democracy. That is why we have difficulty explaining it to others. Yet we delude ourselves into believing that we have explained it. However, the truly educated peoples of the world, and there are many who understand human dignities and the place of man in society, do not accept our explanations. They think in terms of relations to individuals. The thing that you hear over and over again in Asia is: "You Americans talk democracy, but you don't always practice it. You're a bit hypocritical about it. You don't live up to it. You may think you do, but you don't have a true understanding of it except possibly within the context of your own country. We would like to remind you that democracy isn't the exclusive property of the United States of America. There were aspects of it developing in the ancient civilizations of Asia you know little about even today. There are concepts of democracy going on *now* in the East that you do not recognize. If you would influence us, you can best do it by your own personal examples."

American Integrity

We are in a very serious position in the world and in order to find out what we can do, it is increasingly important to make the point that we are not winning this battle of convincing the peoples of the world of our sincerity, our integrity. We are slowly isolating ourselves from a majority even of our former friends in the world by our policies, by our lack of understanding of their interests, desires, aspirations, and hopes. Our assumption that we are strong enough militarily, better educated, having all the know-how, materials, *etc.* so that we could win a war if it comes to that, may be true, but it's going to be quite a holocaust. We have much more at stake and to lose than any other people in the world. As H. G. Wells put it we must not become the country of the blind.

However I'm also saying that nowhere in the world did I find really basic antagonism toward individual Americans. They do like persons who will talk with them freely. Heated discussions for the thoughtful peoples in most parts of the world are their substitute for television sets and other diversions. If I may use the television set analogy, we live in a turn-knob situation, and we think we can solve most of our problems, or postpone, them just by turning the dial or turning the station off completely. The way the world looks now, we cannot solve its and our problems with simple, new gadgetry.

Americans Abroad

One of our Senators has remarked that our American students who go abroad form little American colonies and are not getting into the life of the community. This is sometimes true of students and more often true of other Americans who work and live abroad, I am sorry to say. In Europe it is not as much of a problem as in Asia, yet, I was aware, when I went to one city, that there was what the local citizens called a "golden ghetto." This meant that the American colony lived

together; that their servants were ostracized by their fellow nationals for working for them; that there was a social division; that the soft underbelly of most Americans leads them to think that they *must* have the amenities, the car, the kitchen range, the refrigerator, and all of the other aspects of American civilization of which we are so proud. These possessions of ours do not impress peoples in other parts of the world one third as much as we think they should, and, when they do, it is often negatively. We *have* become a favored people almost too well fed.

I have a very rich and wonderful Asiatic friend who maintains two households. One, is completely Western in which he has everything to the latest design refrigerator, electric clocks, and all the rest. The other household is severe Asiatic style with the open-trough equipment in the kitchen. By custom these people don't like you to see their kitchen when you come to eat in their home. So this man has two homes, one completely Western and the other Asiatic. He uses the Western home for his Western friends only. He never uses it otherwise. This might be called conspicuous consumption, Asiatic style!

I do think we have to train, in a new way as we tried to do in our missionary work, only more so, a kind of person for these assignments who is prepared to cope with them and who can then, by the very nature of his relationships with these people and his zeal for the task, create a situation which allows for joint cooperative effort and respect.

Our Deficiencies

We Americans have to face up to our deficiencies. I found that one of the most effective statements I could make—on my trip—was to say that I came from an “underdeveloped” and “underprivileged” country and that I had come to learn. This got startling reactions, because few had ever heard an American refer to the United States as an underdeveloped country; but we *are* in particular areas; we *are* in languages, certainly; we *are* in our almost total ignorance of the culture and civilization of most of the peoples of the world, in spite of our tremendous educational progress in this country; we *are* in our ability to live at the levels that these people can, with only basic needs fulfilled; and we *are* in some human values for which high industrialization can offer no substitutes.

Now, in exchange we embraced an act of faith. This is what it is, in fact. It happens to be one I believe in more wholly and implicitly as a result of my trip. I have come away from this experience feeling that the aspect of our American civilization that catches the imagination best is our people, much more than our programs and conformities, our directives, and our press releases. In each country it becomes a matter of a person acting as our arm in a foreign situation and how well he does in that situation. Many Americans do very well. Yet I do not think we have tapped the resources of the kinds of American

people to send. I think—if I am wrong I would like to be corrected—that we have assumed that we could find the opinion leaders, the intellectual giants, who by the very nature of their training and experience, prestige and background could accomplish quick miracles. I am wary of quick miracles.

The Task Ahead

I think what we and the educated peoples of the world are after happens in a much slower, much more difficult pattern of educational experiences and cultural relationships, which in the long run are more rewarding. Perhaps we ought to encourage student exchange below the college level. Perhaps we ought to have much more teacher exchange and much more exchange at the working levels of labor and agriculture, etc. The best people in the college contracts programs and in the ICA are former agricultural extension program workers, people who know how to get their hands dirty and don't mind it.

Perhaps we ought to find learners who are still young enough to grow into these responsibilities. Young enough, not in age, I mean, in their learning processes, because many of the 60 and 70 year olds I saw out there were much "younger" than some of the 20 and 30 year olds we send out. They were still maintaining an HPC. That means high professional ceiling. They were continuing to learn and some of them with refreshing humility.

American leadership has not seized the initiative toward marshalling two important aspects of American life:

1. American public opinion and the American interest in world affairs, which I think is far beyond what most of us think it is today;
2. The second is the as yet untapped resources of formal education (public, private, and parochial).

In this task, I came away from this trip feeling we are using this resource and the approaches it offers less than well. The American movement toward mass education is the glue that made America and holds it together. The whole world is interested in this twentieth century phenomenon of educational opportunity for all. The world needs our help and much of what we have to offer, and we need theirs. If we understand its and our needs, we can help save civilization. Education all over the world has a signal role to play.

* * * *

"The world is a book and he who stays home reads only one page."—*A Swedish Proverb*

"No matter how widely you have traveled, you haven't seen the world if you have failed to look into the human hearts that inhabit it."—*Donald Culross Peattie*

General Impressions

"All the World's queer
Save me and thee,
And even thee's a little queer!"

* * *

Actually almost everything we did can now be done more comfortably, and cheaply, and simply at home in an armchair with good books and the wonders of the movie or still camera. It may even read and look better that way than at a remote airfield in a strange country some 3:00 in the morning after a twenty-hour flight.

There is one notable exception—the people one meets and grows to know firsthand in these many far lands and what you learn from them about their hopes and aspirations, *and yours*.

We left this country with great excitement, high enthusiasm, and far too little knowledge of the world which we were to visit—especially the political, economic, and social, including educational stresses of the people. We came home with our excitement unabated, our enthusiasm undimmed, and with far more knowledge, albeit sobering, than we had. We also came home more aware and more grateful than ever for the beauty and bounty of our own country.

United States civilization is the greatest the world has ever known. This is a conviction confirmed by our experiences. Perhaps we are NOT as clever with democracy as were the Greeks, or as astute in law as the Romans, or as superb in architecture as the Moslems—and the list could be increased. All in all, however, American civilization has come farther for more people than any country or civilization, ancient or modern.

This is all the more reason why we cannot afford to be complacent or indifferent about the state of the world today. A world holocaust would be a greater tragedy to Americans than to anyone else—for we have so much more to lose. I am not talking about new cars, air conditioning, *etc.*, but our precious heritage of freedom and a way of life that is proving that mankind IS perfectable.

There is always something to be learned from other cultures, other peoples. We learned that:

1. Each nation has its own cultural pattern. Are we learning to respect this?
2. Each nation has a contribution to make to society. Are we encouraging this as the price of progress?
3. The test of culture is the dignity accorded man and his opportunity to improve himself. Are we helping in this area?
4. Narrow nationalism, racism, social prejudice, and superiority destroy true culture. Are we guarding against them?
5. Face-to-face contacts work best when there is mutual respect. Are we avoiding patronage and distrust?

6. Language must have meaning beyond mere translation. Are we cultivating true communication?

7. There are few absolutes in man's values. Are we serving them faithfully?

8. The nature of the educational opportunity for the child in today's world is one yardstick for measuring the future of the world's efforts toward lasting peace. Are we using this yardstick?

9. Nowhere in the world is there an educational system as great as ours in the United States, with all its faults. Do we know where the status of the teaching profession is lower?

10. Public opinion in international affairs has grown tremendously since World War II. Are we enlisting this constituency as an effective force for waging peace?

11. The rest of the world holds a great faith in education and its impact on society. Do we have the courage of *our* convictions?

12. We in the USA are not winning the battle for men's minds through words or deeds—not as yet. What can we do about it?

13. American culture is not adequately understood or appreciated abroad. How can we "mirror" our culture better in other civilizations?

14. Exchange of persons offers the best approach to face-to-face understanding. Why are we not increasing these programs?

15. Understanding and goodwill come through knowing and appreciating other peoples and cultures. Is the surest road to lasting peace through education?

16. The price of freedom is self-discipline and courage, as the price of power is leadership. Are we ready to play the role the world demands of us?

17. One of the common denominators which characterizes most of European and Asiatic education is the system of controlled examinations. Is this educational problem worth solving?

18. A forty-ninth state, with due apologies to Alaska and Hawaii, already exists. It is made up of Americans who are scattered abroad, doing one thing or another all over the world—or who have returned from an overseas experience still longing for something of value they found in another civilization. Are we harnessing their knowledge?

19. It is not so much basic research that is needed, but rather the synthesizing of existing material by penetrating persons to serve as a guide in assessing the situation in any country and in determining the scope and manner in which assistance or other relationships and activities can best be conducted. Are we evaluating what we know?

20. The United States of America is an underprivileged and underdeveloped nation, too, in many important areas: in languages, in knowledge of other civilizations and cultures, in true happiness, and in the really basic needs of man. Should we not take a fresh look at what we mean by life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness?

Polio Vaccination - An Unfinished Job

ALTHOUGH great strides have been made in vaccinating the susceptible population against paralytic poliomyelitis, a considerable segment of our young people remain unprotected. Several million high-school students are still vulnerable to this disease, since they have not even started the series of inoculations. Yet in recent years, severe disabling has been occurring among teenagers and young adults. We must seek out and overcome the factors that are inhibiting their acceptance of the vaccine.

It should be recalled that the Salk vaccine prevents paralytic poliomyelitis in the individual, but vaccinations do not eliminate the virus. The virus remains in the population in spite of vaccination. Therefore, each individual must protect himself.

A number of high schools have been highly successful in their vaccination programs; in some, over 90 per cent of the students have had their inoculations. Almost uniformly this has occurred where students have taken a major part in educational activities about the vaccine and in the promotion of vaccinations. Where the opportunity has been given them, students have shown remarkable initiative in devising methods of motivating their classmates to have the inoculations. The evidence is convincing that participation of high-school students in community-wide vaccination plans is the most effective way of getting results.

Procedures vary in different places, but usually a community-wide committee on vaccination is formed, with representation from the school systems. With proper guidance, students can be involved at the planning stage, and their participation can be correlated with whatever plan is adopted. Student councils or student committees have surveyed the extent of immunization in classrooms and, on the basis of their findings, have launched a campaign. Sometimes competition between schools or classrooms has helped stimulate interest. Students have also been clever in devising slogans and posters in "teenage language" which has an especial appeal. They have given talks on vaccine, written articles for student newspapers, taken part in radio and TV programs, and planned special programs for school assemblies.

A discussion¹ of poliomyelitis and the vaccine in science and health classes or a review of the facts in an assembly has been an effective means of assuring correct information. It has been observed in some instances that high-school students were reluctant to take the inoculations because they had erroneous ideas about them. Many need to be convinced that the vaccine is as important to their well-being as to their younger brothers and sisters.

¹Teaching aids at the high-school level, and other helpful materials, may be obtained free of charge from the Division of Public Education, the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, 301 E. 42nd Street, New York 17, New York.

The National Association of Student Councils has adopted the promotion of vaccination as a major project for this school year. This should result in greatly increased awareness among high-school students of the part they can play in this health problem.

In August, the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis called a conference of representative teenage leaders to secure from the youth themselves ideas and suggestions for the most effective ways of approaching their contemporaries. Young men and women representing areas where vaccination programs have gained wide acceptance told the other youth leaders how success was achieved. New plans and materials are being developed from the workshop discussions which the young people conducted.

NEW OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK HANDBOOK

The new 1957 edition of the *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, released jointly by Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell and Administrator of Veterans' Affairs Harvey V. Higley, will be available to millions of students now beginning the fall term. The new *Handbook*, which was prepared by the U. S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics, describes the employment outlook in more than 500 occupations and 25 major industries. It also presents information on the nature of the work in each type of job, qualifications needed for employment, earnings, and many related subjects important to an individual in choosing a career.

Since the last edition of the *Handbook* appeared in 1951, American industry has undergone tremendous changes. These recent developments are evaluated in this new *Handbook*, and their impact on each particular industry and occupation is appraised. New sections on fast-growing fields of work such as the physical, biological, and social sciences, electronics manufacturing and maintenance, atomic energy, and radio and television broadcasting have been added; and industries and occupations covered in the 1951 edition have been completely revised.

The new illustrated *Handbook* presents a comprehensive analysis of the employment trends in the various industries and activities that will employ America's workers over the next decades. As a result of changes in the size and character of the population, demands of consumers, technological innovations, and other economic movements, the labor force is expected to grow by more than 10 million over the next decade. The *Handbook* shows how this growth will result in greatly increased needs for some types of personnel, moderate increases in requirements for others, and declines in a few fields which are not expected to share in the general economic expansion.

The *Handbook*, to be revised every two years, is designed primarily for use in the vocational guidance of young people faced with the problem of choosing a career. It provides essential information about the world of work which, when related to an individual's aptitudes, interests, and career objectives, makes it possible for him to make a realistic decision.

Copies are available at \$4.00 each, from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

Timesavers in High School Administration

MAURICE M. GILLENDER

EFFECTIVENESS and efficiency of operation on the part of the administrator set the tone for the entire high school. In recent years as the job of the administrator has become more and more complex and he is expected to perform more and more duties, it might prove of some value to look at various ways of saving time in his job.

The most important time saver is initial organization. This could well take place during the summer months when the administrator is free from the strain and strife of daily operation. After a school year has begun, there is little time to plan for good organization because we become so involved in the everyday necessities of daily operation. Along with organization, an efficient and well-trained office staff ranks high in conserving the time of the busy administrator for other areas in which his leadership is needed and can be used to a better advantage.

The administrator should make every effort to convince his board of education of this need for a well-staffed and equipped office. It is appalling to see, in many cases, the amount of clerical work some administrators are forced to do, and the lack of necessary equipment or mechanical devices with which he is provided to do this work. It is not difficult to show an enlightened board of education how much more they are getting for their money (in terms of an administrator's salary) if they make it possible for him to spend his time in curriculum supervision and improvement, in teacher and pupil personnel problems, and in good public relations; and leave the clerical duties, which can be carried out more efficiently, to a competent clerical staff.

An administrator should not be afraid to delegate responsibility to his staff. He must remember he is working with trained, professional people who are able to make decisions and want to. In delegating some of these responsibilities, he is not only relieving himself of many unnecessary duties, but he is also making his staff realize that he considers them competent people and that he values their help in making the high school as effective as possible.

Another most important timesaver, in my opinion, is the handbook. We think of handbooks for the students, the faculty, the counselors, and the department chairmen. A good handbook for the office staff is of equal importance. Everyone realizes that a lot of work goes into making and revising the handbook and that still many questions are left unanswered, but a lot of time consuming things can be explained by a well-prepared handbook which is frequently revised and constructed for easy reference.

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Much could be written on the numerous mechanical devices now on the market to perform various clerical tasks which formerly had to be done manually. The administrator owes it to himself and to his job to become familiar with these time saving devices and their cost, and to see how they can be adapted to his individual school. Microfilming of permanent records has become a necessity in the past few years. Not only is this a great space saver, but it is also a great timesaver for quick referral. Many schools are now using IBM equipment for report cards, thus taking care of another tedious job which has grown out of proportion as our school enrollments have steadily increased. There seems to exist a general misunderstanding as to the cost of such devices. However, upon investigation one is really amazed at just how little the cost is, both in terms of initial outlay and of potential time, money, and energy saved.

Though we like to pride ourselves that we maintain a completely democratic type of administration with flexibility of policy, definite policies in specific areas will save a lot of time, confusion, and headaches. For example, such a simple device as a standardized form which a student must complete in clearing for an anticipated absence in advance of that absence will save countless hours of checking and rechecking in a large school system. Likewise, a definite policy on enrollment changes, absences, sickness in school, use of the telephone, calling teachers from classes will make the school a more efficient and enjoyable place in which to work. Don't be afraid to have some positive administrative policies. You will not be tabbed an autocrat. Instead, teachers and students will respect you for taking a definite stand and keeping them informed in advance.

Any high school of over five hundred students will find the services of an attendance officer invaluable. Having a person whose chief job is to take care of issuing permits and checking on absences and tardiness will increase the efficiency of the school immeasurably. As you are well aware, this job cannot be done satisfactorily by either the administrative office or by your core of teachers. With several handling this job, uniformity of procedure just cannot exist. Then the office must once again check and recheck for errors. Even though you have to start in a small way and free one of your staff two or three periods of the day for this job, you will find that it will pay great dividends in time saved and a job well done.

Do you have any idea how much time can be saved by properly training the student help, so many offices use, on an unpaid hourly basis? Most of these girls are used to run errands, record absences, and, in some cases, even answer the telephone. If you are going to use this type of help, at all, then the job must be important to them as well as you. They should have definite duties to perform and they should be instructed just how to perform these duties and what is expected of them. They must be impressed with the importance of their job and all it entails. If they are properly trained, they will not only be of greater service to

you, but you will also have provided them with invaluable training in accepting and carrying our responsibilities.

It is well worth-while to evaluate yearly the various printed or duplicated office forms which are used for such things as attendance, registration, enrollment, and all the other areas of administration. In some cases you may find you are lost in a maze of such forms to the point that they become meaningless. On the other hand, you might find that some simple form might take place of various duties that at the present time are consuming far too much of your office clerk's time in just checking and re-checking. Uniformity of procedure and printed forms in the following areas might prove worthy of your investigation: (1) material requisitions, (2) telephone messages, (3) attendance cards, (4) registration blanks, and (5) change of academic program. As mentioned previously, there is a real danger of becoming too involved with standardized forms, but a certain number, used efficiently, will prove of untold value.

Use of a daily bulletin for currently scheduled school events plus a weekly calendar to keep the faculty and maintenance people informed, in advance, of what is happening and what is going to happen is greatly appreciated by the entire staff. A bulletin is recommended even if you use a public address system for daily announcements. You will find that you will save much time as well as gain faculty appreciation if you make it a rule never to use faculty meetings to make announcements that could be made in your bulletins. Faculty meetings, in fact, are a complete waste of time if they are nothing more than an instrument for making announcements and handing down administrative decisions and policies. Plan them well and use valuable meeting time for intra- and inter-departmental planning and exchange of ideas to coordinate better your entire educational program.

In the main, efficient and timesaving administration is merely common sense, and constant re-evaluation of yourself, how you perform your duties and what you accomplish with the aid of your staff is valuable. It is quite easy to settle down to the everyday way of doing your job as you have done it over and over year after year. However, unless you are alert to change and aware of the progress and new developments which are taking place almost daily, you are going to be caught in the rut of inefficiency. Read as much as possible of your own professional literature. Learn what your colleagues are doing and evaluate in light of your own situations. Don't be afraid to discard some of your own pet, but maybe obsolete, methods of operation even though they have served you faithfully for years, if you become aware of something that is better.

Don't be hesitant about trying something new if, after careful study and consideration, it looks like something that will give your school a shot in the arm. Be active in your local, state, and national organizations—you have something to give and they have something to offer. Finally, don't feel you have to do all the work yourself in your local school. It's amazing how well the school still continues to operate when you are away from it for a week or so. You have some pretty valuable people all around you if you'll only use them.

The Principal and the Improvement of Relationships

LEROY M. CHRISTOPHE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS EDUCATIONAL IMPORTANCE

THE purpose of this article is to discuss several of the most important relationships that exist between the teacher and others in the education program. Further, this article is concerned with the role of the principal in developing and maintaining desirable relations with teachers and between teachers and other persons connected with the school program.

Effective school programs are developed for the benefit of pupil growth and development. These activities are carried on primarily by teachers who are the key figures in a faithful educational endeavor. Thus, if the objectives of education are to be achieved, teachers and other staff members must understand and accept their obligations to function as a part of an "educational whole" working for the common good of all youth.

THE DEMOCRATIC CONCEPT IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

The concept of democratic administration of public schools is not new, but increasing importance has been attached to the idea in recent years. This is perhaps due to the permanent interest of Americans in the principles of democracy and to the recurring need for democracy to demonstrate its superiority over other forms of social control. The writer's experience has been that administration can be made democratic and that pupils and teachers will be more productive if a co-operative approach to school problems is encouraged by the principal.

Fundamental to success in demonstrating school administration are:

- (1) a sincere desire of the principal to share administrative responsibility with functionaries who have demonstrated their qualities of leadership;
- (2) the principal's willingness to provide opportunity for teachers and pupils to share in school administration according to the readiness of each to participate. Efforts to organize and administer schools democratically could be based upon these fundamental points of view:

1. That successful school administration is neither principal administrated, teacher administrated, nor student governed. Rather good school administration is a fusion of the ideas, ideals, and efforts of principal, teachers, and student, each making a contribution and knowing that his ideas are considered as having value.

2. That democratic administration is not an ideal to be handed to a staff or student body but a situation to be achieved in a developmental manner. Opportunity for greater participation in school affairs should follow demonstrated willingness and ability to assume smaller responsibilities successfully.

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Some of the outcomes of efforts to carry out these concepts of democratic school administration are:

1. A gradual increase in willingness of teachers to make decisions cooperatively that otherwise would be made by the principal
2. Rapid increase in desire of teachers to assume responsibilities not specifically assigned to them
3. Improvement in good public relations because teachers are selling what they develop cooperatively
4. Readiness of staff to attack common problems of the school
5. Growth of an effective student council or other forms of student participation in school programs.

ASPECTS OF DEMOCRATIC RELATIONS

The development of democratic relations in a school program should not be regarded as shifting the center of control from one individual or group to another. Rather, democratic operation of educational programs takes root somewhere between authoritarianism and complete decentralization. The principal more than any other single person is responsible for bringing about the kind of relationships that foster the most ideal conditions for working and learning. Thus, it is important that careful consideration be given to aspects necessary to achieve democratically conceived relationships.

Signs of Democratic Administration

The absence of serious tensions among students, patrons, and staff members is a most favorable sign of the use of democratic procedures in administration. Tensions are usually found where there is a lack of mutual respect and confidence. When teachers know and express appreciation for the administrative point of view on issues, the presence of tensions is likely to be reduced. However, such a condition will not continue for long unless the administrator constantly seeks to understand and adjust to viewpoints that are consistent with the welfare of teachers.

Members of a school staff will have neither the desire nor perhaps the opportunity of free expression except within the framework of a "shared administration." It is natural that persons who are professionally prepared to function in a school program will have widely different ideas about an issue that arises. In a democratically administered school program, each feels secure in expressing his ideas regardless of the magnitude of the difference between the opposing points of view. There is no firm basis for administration that does not recognize, encourage, and often adjust to conclusions arrived at through the medium of free expression of all concerned. The individual staff member has every right to expect sympathetic consideration of his ideas even when he is at odds with others. Yet, it is equally important that each member of the school staff will always be willing to abide in word and deed by group decision.

Cooperative determination of objectives, policies, and the machinery of operations of the school program is evident in the democratically administered school. Since school programs are developed for the welfare of

students, they ought to be given a voice in deciding what is to be considered best for student welfare. Likewise, if staff members are charged with the duty of operating the multi-phases of a good school program, those same persons must help shape the policies and practices by which they are to be guided. Administration otherwise conceived is doomed to eventual failure. Consultation and agreement must be substituted for coercion.

Force and compulsion in school administration can achieve verbal compliance with administrative demands and only token action. Sometimes the prevailing attitude is, "Let us get this done because the administrative head wants it." In such a situation, a genuine interest in program improvement will not be created. There will exist only minimum activity sufficient to satisfy administrative demands.

As a beginning principal, the writer often found pride in recounting the number of efforts that had been started in the school program. These efforts lasted only so long as they occupied the full attention of the principal. The opinions developed that staff members were lacking in initiative and resourcefulness. Such a conclusion was justified only when activity was centered around "what the principal wanted." In years long passed, the writer became interested in helping teachers to do things that they wanted to do. This does not mean that the principal does not exercise leadership. Rather, it emphasizes a changed concept of leadership. In the numerous instances when teachers "drop in" to discuss their problems, the principal can find an opportunity to help staff members clarify the issue and adopt a method of procedure or goals to be achieved. Sometimes a carefully timed suggestion will take seed in the mind of a teacher and flower at a later time when the source of the idea is obscure. Those charged with the responsibility of carrying on a school program will labor more effectively with leadership that encourages imagination rather than follow a pre-determined program, that seeks opportunity to facilitate efforts initiated by teachers rather than consume all time and effort of teachers with activities defined in administrative bulletins, that seeks minor successes in a teacher's work and uses those outcomes to stimulate further achievements.

Finally, an essential aspect of democratic relations between principal and staff is the desire of the chief administrator to seek unanimity rather than majority opinions in the determination of policies and practices. A few contacts with the more vocal members of a staff in advance of a staff meeting or prior commitments of support of an idea by influential staff members will enable a principal to get a majority vote in favor of some issue. The principal who wishes to win complete confidence in his leadership and optimum support of ideas for staff action will not utilize tactics of this sort to win acceptance of ideas.

Channels of Democratic Administration

Perhaps one of the most common avenues of sharing administrative responsibility is by means of committees. Cooperative effort of the entire

staff could be utilized to determine what committees are necessary to render the many services essential to a successful educational program. Once the list of groups has been made, continued effort of all concerned could be made use of to define the duties of each committee and, finally, to determine who are to be members of committees.

Voluntary membership on committees is preferable to assigning teachers such duties. At the end of the school year, each staff member could be asked to state his choice of committee duty. This would enable those who preferred a change of responsibility to express their desire which would be considered by those having responsibility for organizing the next year's program. Once organized, committees should possess the authority necessary to discharge the assigned duties.

The executive council is used often to represent teachers and other staff members in "shared administration" of the school program. The council is composed of administrative and supervisory assistants assigned to the resident staff and elected faculty representatives. Actions of the council are subject to review and final approval of the general staff. Once established as an agency to share in the administration of the school, the executive council should be consistently urged to function in that capacity. The principal should avoid using the council only when inconsequential matters are being considered. Instead, the body should function on all matters of policy.

The citizens' advisory group affords broad opportunities for patrons to participate in shaping educational programs. By means of "open forums" and similar media, the viewpoints of interested parents and other patrons are made known to school officials. Similarly, the student council is a channel of communication between students and school officials. Regardless of the particular type of organization that may afford channels of communication between school officials and others concerned with educational programs, it is well to remember that activity should be initiated with small, specific responsibilities easy to achieve and of interest to all concerned. As success is achieved in working together and sharing administrative responsibility for minor issues, the know-how gained may be transferred to problems of major importance.

STRENGTHENING TEACHER-PRINCIPAL RELATIONSHIPS

If school programs are to be effective in promoting the wholesome adjustments of pupils, such programs must be undergirded by principal-teacher-relationships that cause only worth-while influences to impinge upon the child. Good principal-teacher relationship is bi-lateral, placing responsibility upon teachers and principal alike. It is not difficult for professionally prepared people to determine the best course of action when situations arise requiring principal-teacher interaction. If teachers wish to promote the best relationship with principals, the teacher will recognize the principal as a professionally prepared person responsible for facilitating the whole program and the work of all functionaries. The principal will be regarded as the status leader in the school program and

as one whose opinion should be highly regarded in certain matters pertaining to the ongoing school program. On the other hand, if the principal wishes to promote successful relationships with teachers, he will, likewise, accept the teacher as a professionally competent individual responsible for the management of the instructional program. The teacher will be regarded as the person best qualified to make certain decisions about the school program.

Successful principal-teacher relationship recognized at least three situations. *First*, there are instances in which the principal's judgment could be considered most important. Such instances pertain to matters needing an immediate decision and for which staff consensus is not immediately possible. In the same manner would be regarded matters of a controversial nature about which staff agreement will require additional deliberation.

Second, there are occasions when the point of view of the teacher could prevail. Such matters involve occasions when the outcome is entirely the responsibility of the teacher as in the case of preparing an assembly program. In the like manner would be regarded matters pertaining to details of classroom management and instruction. If creativity is to flourish among teachers, if they are to develop initiative and resourcefulness, if teachers are to maintain the kind of mental health essential to good instruction, they must be released from excessive controls from the central office and given opportunity to do the things that experience and preparation reveal as wise.

Third, there are situations requiring the combined thought of principal-teacher and all others concerned. Most matters pertaining to effective school programs could rightly be regarded in this area. Certainly if the entire staff is to be responsible for the success of a program, the same group must be concerned in decisions. Inter-action of the entire staff is necessary in matters pertaining to selection of textbooks, appointment of new teachers, course of study construction, planning faculty meetings, construction of new buildings, selection or dismissal of teachers, welfare policies, in-service programs, activity programs, home-room programs, pupil report cards, awards, code of ethics, etc.

What Teachers Expect of Principals

Every teacher has a right to expect certain working conditions to exist as a result of qualities exhibited by the principal. High on the list of things expected is a fair distribution of duties and responsibilities within the school program. Few conditions are more comforting to teachers than the knowledge that each staff member is carrying a fair share of the load. Many staff members will readily accept any assignment suggested by the principal in contrast with the individual who resists any assignment. The effective principal constantly guards against the temptation to avoid the latter and make greater use of the former type of staff member.

Faced with the need for a particular service, many persons will assume one of two attitudes. For example, a teacher is requested to assist in pro-

moting an effective student council. He may take a "negative attitude" toward the duty and immediately begin to enumerate the reasons why such a task cannot be successfully achieved. Accordingly, such an individual soon becomes possessed with the idea that the task is difficult if not impossible to accomplish. Or he may take a "positive approach" toward the duty and immediately begin a summation of the factors that will enable the assignment to be successfully carried out.

Although teachers differ in the extent of their participation in a school program, each expects to be given full recognition for his contributions. The term "my school" is avoided by the effective school principal. When a phrase of the school program is praised, the principal could immediately point out the staff member who supervised the praiseworthy work. Confidence is built and pride is established in a teacher when he knows that the school news and other channels of communication to the public will be used to give recognition to the achievements of all teachers. It is a wise principal who recognizes small successes in the work of teachers and uses the same to foster greater achievements.

Teachers generally desire to do a good job promoting school programs. Among the multiple activities of the classroom, a teacher will evidence points of weakness among strong points. In such instances, the teacher has a right to expect that he will receive sympathetic understanding and assistance, in overcoming the deficiency. A teacher's feeling of depression would have firm base if, in conference with supervisors, superintendents, or other school official, the teacher is found with a complaint from the principal that had previously not been called to the teacher's attention by the principal. It is indeed a wise principal who, in conference with the teacher, discusses those factors in the teachers' performance that are unsatisfactory. Where rating scales are used, the principal may well go over the points involved as they are related to the teacher's performance. Certainly tensions are fewer among staff members when they know that penalties are not imposed for poor production until the person concerned first has ample opportunity to improve the quality of work.

Principals acquire information about teachers and should keep such matters confidential at all times. He should not encourage or accept gossip about members of the staff. If points of difference arise among teachers that require the attention of the principal, all parties concerned should participate in the deliberations seeking adjustment. Few conditions cement better relationship between principal and teacher than confidence built upon knowledge that each may be depended on to foster the welfare of the other.

If principals are held accountable for certain responsibilities, they must be accorded authority necessary to accomplish successfully the duty. That primacy, however, must not be abused. It should be regarded not as a means of accomplishing individual wishes but rather as a vehicle promoting inter-staff relationships essential to successful school programs.

Finally, teachers expect capable professional leadership of principals. One of the greatest assets of a principal is his own professional knowledge.

Such a possession interwoven with an attitude of advisement rather than direction of the affairs of teachers will very likely enable the principal to emerge as the educational leader of his staff. Once convinced that the principal's professional knowledge is of a high quality and that implications for a particular school program are practical, the staff will rally to that principal's leadership in program improvement. Although professional knowledge is an asset of the principal in program improvement, the tendency to initiate curriculum changes too quickly is a danger to be avoided.

What Principals Expect of Teachers

The principal more than any other single person is responsible for success of the school program. He expects staff members to function as an educational team with each member functioning effectively in the area most related to the individual's experience and preparation. An athletic coach may shuffle the team lineup to effect greater performance; likewise, the professional staff of a school may be utilized in a manner to achieve fuller realization of educational goals. Each functionary although performing masterfully as an individual must coordinate his efforts with the activities of others.

When dissatisfactions arise, the points of difference will be submitted to the department head, grade chairman, other administrative assistant or the principal. Issues of a controversial nature should not be aired before pupils or patrons. If such problems arise, they should engage the best thought of the staff. When a working agreement is reached, even minority views should yield to group consensus.

When doubt arises regarding the wisdom of administrative action, a conference should be requested for clarification and better understanding. When decisions are made in matters of promotions, recognitions, etc., the principal is reasonable in assuming that such conclusions are regarded by the staff as based on professional standards and not personal relations. Staff members certainly realize that the principal must reach conclusions about the quality of a teacher's work based upon the principal's conviction rather than upon the teacher's judgment about his own skill. Then too, the principal must regard each issue in perspective with the total educational program.

Finally, principals have a right to expect that teachers will keep the school day sacred for instruction. Schools exist in order that students may be taught. Thus the teaching of youth is primary in school programs. All services and activities must be coordinated around that function. Interruptions of classwork, use of class time for services that can be performed as well or better at another time should be attacked with persistence and vigor.

Building Cooperative Understanding

If bonds between teachers and principals are to be strengthened, if better school programs are to result because of sympathetic, cooperative

understanding of educational team members, the principal must be as concerned about building intra-group understandings as he is about course of study construction. The following points of action offer one approach a principal may use to achieve that end:

1. Be friendly with teachers but not familiar
2. Realize that a list of persons who are disliked by the principal is also a list of persons who dislike the principal
3. Judge each teacher by his points of strength—we find what we look for in a person
4. Avoid actions that people resent
5. Never criticize a teacher in an open meeting
6. Avoid contradicting teachers or proving they are wrong
7. Try to make every contact with a teacher a constructive one
8. Pleasure and profit are all that can result from a teacher-principal conference—let the teacher profit most and receive greater pleasure
9. Neutralize clashes of interest by seeking to establish and pursue common goals
10. Think through ideas before presenting them to the staff and seek to be too clear on such matters to be misunderstood.

The principal's role in the modern school is to seek out, improve, and utilize the strengths of the staff and to minimize weakness by making them less conspicuous. No amount of effort in that direction is wasted time.

OTHER RELATIONSHIPS IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Although the spirit that exists between teachers and the principal will very likely determine the course of events in a school program, there are other concerns that influence the tone of school programs. Following are four essential relationships that supplement developments already discussed in this chapter and points that, if observed, will prove worthwhile.

I. *Teacher-Teacher Relationship*

1. Realize that you belong to an educational team, all members of which are joining forces to achieve the same objective
2. Refrain from making derogatory remarks about co-workers to teachers, principals, and personnel in the presence of students
3. Sing the strengths of the school and its teachers rather than its weaknesses; tell of weaknesses only to the individuals concerned
4. Do not imply favoritism whenever a colleague is promoted
5. Do not divulge confidential information about associates
6. Do not thrash out misunderstandings between teachers in the presence of students or others not concerned

II. *Teacher-Pupil Relationship*

1. Consider the welfare of the pupil as the first concern
2. Respect the rights of students
3. Understand the strengths and weaknesses of the student through the discovery of his needs and interests
4. Employ friendliness, patience, sympathy, courtesy, and sincerity when confronted with student problems and attitudes
5. Be fair and consistent when discipline is necessary, avoiding the use of threats

6. Exercise self-control to establish confidence and loyalty
7. Be impartial in all dealings with students
8. Be confidential concerning information that he is able to secure
9. Avoid religious and political indoctrination
10. Establish a permissive atmosphere in the classroom where the student has a feeling of belonging
11. Do not leave school every day before parents or students have an opportunity for consultation
12. Grade and return examination papers and classroom exercises to students promptly with opportunity for students to ask reasonable questions about the test or mark received.
13. Do not give pupils failing marks (in scholarship) because of behavior difficulties

III. *Teacher-Office Personnel Relationship*

1. Understand and respect office personnel, as a functional part of the entire school program, and as qualified adults for duties they are to perform
2. Be punctual in making reports that are due in the office
3. Maintain a courteous and patient attitude when waiting for supplies and for conferences or when seeking information, realizing the fact that all are "busy" with various responsibilities
4. Abstain from revealing uncomplimentary remarks about children to parents of other children during conferences with deans, principal, counselor, or clerks

IV. *Office Personnel-Teacher Relationships*

1. Respect teachers as a vital part of the entire school program and as fully qualified for the duties they are to perform
2. Avoid unnecessary classroom interruptions that may be taken care of during non-teaching periods
3. Be respectful and courteous to teachers waiting for conferences, supplies, and other information, realizing the fact that all are "busy"
4. Refrain from discussing transcripts of teachers or divulging other confidential information concerning teachers with patrons, parents, or others
5. Avoid discussion of teachers before students
6. Respect teachers as adults at all times

Although the foregoing list of bearings is not exhaustive of the inter-relations occurring in a school program, they reveal some of the fundamental considerations that must be maintained if staff morale is to develop and be maintained at its optimum level.

SUMMARY

This article has been concerned with developing and maintaining desirable relationships among members of the school staff. Democratic relations are not synonymous with complete decentralization, but rather a condition that recognizes and promotes opportunity for each individual to contribute according to his ability. The absence of tensions, freedom to express points of view that are different, cooperative determination of policies, the absence of compulsion, and staff unanimity rather than majority opinion are regarded as aspects of democratic administration. Effective school programs are possible only when relationships exist among staff members that foster conditions essential to maximum utilization of the talents of each.

Reporting to Parents

WILFORD H. WOODY

EVERY parent is interested in what his child is doing in school and, consequently, is vitally concerned with the marks that his child makes. This grading of his work begins in the elementary school and continues, in one form or another, throughout his school life.

However, even in one system, there are many ways of reporting to parents, and many changes take place as the youngster advances through the school system. In the kindergarten, there may be just a report of adjustment to the school situation. This report may be in general terms, such as a letter, or in general statements. In the elementary school, grades one through six, there are report cards with ratings of ability and achievement, usually on a three-level basis. In junior high school, this plan is usually continued through the eighth grade, although some schools have variations which will be discussed later. Then in the ninth grade, it becomes necessary to give a mark with some definite value, for these marks go on the transcript to the colleges.

This system of marking usually takes the form of letters in the Denver system with A, B, C, D, and E as the usual form, with the A as the highest mark and the E as a failing mark. While all of the Denver high schools are at present time three-year high schools, the transcript for college entrance and for records carries the ninth-grade record as a part of the high-school transcript. However, this discussion does not deal with the report to the colleges but rather the report to parents.

In the elementary schools and the junior high schools, this report to parents is made twice each semester. In the senior high schools, the report is made three times each semester, with the final marking in each semester being the mark recorded on the permanent record.

There are five senior high schools in Denver. In two of these schools, the marks are recorded with business machines punch cards and, in the other three, marks are recorded on regular report cards. Since West High School is one of the schools reporting with the punch cards, some explanation of this will be given. The entire program of class cards and mark cards is prepared by the IBM system using various cards in their system. The mark reports are made on these cards. The first report at the end of six weeks is given to the pupil; the second report at the end of twelve weeks is given to the pupil unless there is one or more failures, in which case the card is mailed to the home; at the end of a semester, all mark cards are mailed to insure receipt at the homes. (See sample report card below.)

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SEN	MO	YEAR	ALPHA SORT CARD	COUNSELOR
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STUDENT NO.		STUDENT NAME		MARKING SYSTEM					
PERIOD	ROOM NUMBER	SUBJECT	1ST		2ND		FINAL		
			GRADE	DAYS ABSENT	GRADE	DAYS ABSENT	GRADE	DAYS ABSENT	
									1 OR A-EXCELLENT
									2 OR B-GOOD
									3 OR C-AVERAGE
									4 OR D-LOWEST PASSING MARK
									BUT NOT ACCEPTED BY MANY SCHOOLS FOR ENTRANCE CREDITS
									5 OR E-NOT PASSING-REPEAT IN CLASS
									9 OR F-INCREDIBLE
									-TO BE MADE UP WITHIN NEXT 6 WEEKS

SCHOLARSHIP REPORT TO PARENTS

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS

* EACH MARK INDICATES THE QUALITY OF WORK DONE FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE SEMESTER TO THE TIME AT WHICH THE MARK IS GIVEN

PLEASE CALL THE SCHOOL
IF THERE IS ANY QUESTION REGARDING THIS REPORT

However, the preparation of a report card as such is only a part of the story. In the elementary schools, a great deal of contact with the home is made by the individual teacher and by the principal. This may take the form of a letter or may involve an invitation to the parent to visit the school to discuss with the principal and the teacher the work and achievement of the pupil. Also in the elementary schools, there is usually large attendance at the PTA meetings. At some of these a great deal of time is given by teachers and the administrative representative to the discussion of marks, the marking systems used, their meanings, and suggestions to parents relative to improvement in the work of their children.

A somewhat similar situation holds true in most of the junior high schools, especially in the seventh and eighth grades. Here, too, the PTA meetings are generally well attended and parents have an opportunity to discuss marks and achievement with teachers. In a few schools on the junior high school level, many letters are sent home relative to marks, inviting parents to come to school and discuss the mark situation with the teachers, adviser, and the principal. In most cases these conferences result in favorable developments.

Beginning with the ninth grade in junior high school, the marks become a part of the pupil's record for high-school graduation and for entrance to college. Here we have the fixed mark situation mentioned earlier. This record is kept in the senior high school and eventually aims at graduation and, in many cases, entrance to college. As indicated previously, these marks are given to the pupils at the end of each six weeks of work throughout their high-school attendance.

Reporting to parents on the high school level is a varying job in the high-school areas of a large city system. This is true because of differing abilities of pupils and differing backgrounds of parents. In some schools, a very high percentage of the high-school graduates expect to attend college, and the parents are generally vitally concerned. In other districts, the urge for college entrance is much less and there is a corresponding lack of interest on the part of parents relative to the marks. Likewise, there is a wide variation in the percentage of "drop-outs" in the various schools. Last year for example, the percentage of high-school graduates entering college from the Denver high schools varied from seventy-five per cent to ten per cent with an average for the city of forty per cent. While this is above the national norm, there are still schools that fail to reach the norm and, likewise, there is a large "drop-out" after entering college.

At West where the IBM program is in operation, the final semester marks are sent to the home by mail. This means that a high percentage of the mark cards reach the home. It also makes it possible for parents to contact the school relative to their child's mark. This contact is made through the offices of the assistant principal or dean and usually involves the teachers of the pupil. Through these discussions, it is possible for

parents to have a better understanding of the system and the meaning of the marks. However, it should be said that there is no fixed standard for marking pupils, especially in high school. By this is meant that there are teachers with very high subject matter standards where high marks are difficult to obtain, while there are other teachers where it is not so difficult to attain high marks. I think it should also be said that girls marks will rate, on the average, above those for boys simply because more girls will work harder and cause less friction than will boys. This does not mean that there are not boys in high school who will make fine mark records, but they will be in the minority in the top levels.

One thing that should be kept in mind by all in high school—parents, teachers, and the pupils—is that here, for the first time, the youngster is primarily on his own and it is up to him to decide his course of action. He has to decide whether he will be as good a student as possible or will waste his time. And, of course, we have all seen examples of this kind of planning.

In addition to reporting to parents, it is necessary to report to the pupils about some of these findings. In line with this thinking, a series of meetings with each class is held each fall at West High School to orient the pupil to the rules and regulations of the school and to those principles by which he may make a success of high school, or just put in the time. These meetings have proved most helpful to many students. Where they are followed by questions, many tantalizing pupil problems can be discussed.

In presenting this article, there is no feeling that the questions have been answered. Certain procedures have been indicated which are working quite well, but there are many questions that are not answered. For example, Why are there so many drop-outs from high school? Should we be doing something else for many of these youngsters? Why do so many high-school graduates quit school at this time and go to work? Is this in the best interests of our society? Should pupils in the elementary schools and junior high schools be "passed" because of age? If so, what do we do with them? Should large city systems provide special schools for certain types of youngsters? Over the years, the letters which we have included with the report cards have raised some of the above questions and many others with parents. Such consultation has brought improvement in the efforts of individual children and has helped us to know the effectiveness of our system of reporting to parents.

The Core Idea

T. J. HILL

EVERYONE has a philosophy of life. He may never have attempted to put it into words or to write it down; but, when he is called upon to make decisions concerning himself or the ones he loves, he makes these decisions in light of certain standards, principles, and beliefs. These factors may be said to be his philosophy of life.

Likewise, every teacher has a philosophy of education. When he enters the classroom, his procedures are based upon certain beliefs; his decisions are made because of his idea as to what is right and what is not right, or what is worth-while and what is not. His teaching speaks his philosophy. Each teacher of the core program has his individual philosophy, no two of these philosophies may be exactly alike.

In understanding the underlying philosophy of the core curriculum, it is helpful to think also of the purpose of the school. Schools are maintained by a society to perpetuate and to improve that society. Maximum improvement of the society depends upon maximum development of the individuals who constitute the society. Maximum development of the individual necessitates development, both with respect to his own aptitudes and interests and with respect to the problems confronting his group or his society. The school as an instrument of society must provide, therefore, for this two-fold development of the individual. Special interest fields such as art, foreign languages, higher mathematics, higher science, and special vocational subjects are designed to take care of the special aptitudes and interests of high-school boys and girls. The integrated core curriculum is designed primarily to care for their needs as participating members of a society, in this case a democratic society.

The bases of the core curriculum are the needs and interests of society and the needs and interests of the individual. Certain needs of society exist in unsolved social problems. From the beginning of time man has been confronted with major social problems: how to secure food and shelter, how to make a home, how to choose a mate, how to improve human relationships, how to find spiritual satisfaction. Such problems may be designated as persistent human problems. It seems safe to predict that for, some time to come, man will continue to be confronted with such problems. Although man has made some progress in the solution of his problems, certain aspects of them remain unsolved.

In addition to unsolved problems of society, there are needs and interests of boys and girls at various age levels. These needs and interests may be of two types: (1) fleeting and transitory and (2) persistent and

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common to a large number of pupils. It is the latter group with which the core curriculum is concerned. Moreover, there are many latent interests and needs of which the pupils are unaware. Interest in these needs should be aroused, and pupils stimulated to meet them. It is a sound psychological principle that interest is of vital importance in happy and meaningful learning. These needs and interests of boys and girls are not properly cared for in special interest subjects or fields. For instance, all the boys and girls in a democracy need the opportunity to live the democratic way of life. This implies (1) a feeling that one, himself, is important and has a contribution to make to the group; (2) a feeling that one's neighbor is important and has a contribution to make to his group and is, therefore, entitled to a respectful hearing; (3) a recognition of the procedures whereby democratic ideals are preserved; (4) a recognition of the importance of the welfare of the group; (5) a willingness to contribute to and to further the welfare of the group; (6) a recognition of the sacredness of the personality of the individual.

It is necessary, therefore, to have a time in the school program when all the children of all the people shall meet—the bright and the dull, the poor and the rich, the aggressive and the non-aggressive—and together study the persistent human problems in such a way that the ideal of democratic living will be developed at the same time. Ability grouping and subject centered courses do not always lend themselves to these ends; hence, the integrated core, where all fields contribute to the solution of common problems and where methods approximate to the democratic process have been developed.

As has been implied in the foregoing statements, the school's part in meeting the needs of pupils and of society is accomplished best by the solution of the problems that face pupils as they live in and out of school and by projected solutions of common, persistent social problems. This might be called the content of the core curriculum.

In the core, projected solutions are made after all available information is brought to bear on the problem, after all sources of information have been exhausted. With respect to subject matter, science may contribute, or history, or English, or language, or art, or music; with respect to sources of information, the home, the community, the written word, the spoken word, the individual and the group may contribute. Life is not divided into an economic area, a sociological area, or an historical area; it consists of attempts to solve the ever-recurring problems arising from the effort to attain a happier and more satisfying existence. It seems logical, therefore, to organize the core so as to include all areas of life.

The question of the proper time to make any given investigation is dependent upon various factors. Primary among these are the interests of the learner. To introduce for study, to a group of pupils, a persistent social problem without consideration of the intellectual and social maturity of the pupils is unsuccessful in most instances. Thus, any suc-

cessful development of an integrated core program implies the need for the constant study of the maturity and interests of boys and girls at the various age levels.

The satisfaction of these needs and the stimulation of these interests should be achieved through activities which are cooperatively planned, developed, and evaluated by teacher and pupils. This cooperative idea is acceptance and application of democracy as a way of life. This democracy is founded on the acceptance of the belief that everyone is a respected and a respectful member of the group. It is significant that this spirit should begin with the administration of the entire school and also should mark the relationship between teachers and pupils.

It is believed that the core curriculum will improve instruction, because, in a well-organized core, the following things are evident:

1. Every student is working with a wide range of materials concerning a problem that is significant to him.
2. The problems with which the pupils are working are socially significant in our present-day democratic society.
3. Teachers and students are planning together in the setting up and in the investigation of the problems.
4. In connection with each problem under investigation, every student is taking part in a program of broad reading.
5. Every student has a wide range of opportunity for written and oral expression.
6. Every student has the opportunity to make a contribution to his group.
7. The right of each person to be heard and to express himself is maintained.
8. All students are engaged in activities which are consistent with their present development.
9. All students are engaged in activities that will enable them to realize the goals which have been established by teacher and pupils.
10. All students are engaged in a wide variety of activities.
11. Students and teachers develop standards of value for each activity in the learning process.
12. Students and teachers are continually evaluating the learning process.
13. Students and teachers measure progress in terms of actual performance and in relation to their ability and past performance.
14. Teachers criticize learning activities in such a way as to stimulate growth.

THE DEMANDS OF SOCIETY

Society continually makes certain demands upon the products of our public schools. Whether these persistent demands made by society are right or wrong is often a question for debate. None will deny, however, that society may expect certain returns for the time and money invested in public education.

What are some of these demands? First of all, perhaps society expects the school to guide students in the development of normal values and desirable traits of character. Instructors in the core program are continually seeking to assist their students in the attainment of personal integrity, of respect for the rights of others, and of an attitude of social cooperation. From day to day they observe the social behavior of their

students and thereby gain concrete evidence on which to base informal conferences with the various individuals. These informal conferences tend to establish bonds of understanding between teacher and pupils.

The public expects students to develop in their understanding of important social problems: how shall men feed, cloth, and house themselves properly; how may health be maintained and improved; and how may goods be distributed adequately. These are some of the persistent problems little likely to be solved in the near future; however, they are problems which are crying for solution. The core program attempts to introduce to students various phases of these problems throughout their public school experience.

Another important demand which society makes on our schools is the introduction of students to important features of our cultural heritage. While considering the cultural and social heritage, the schools are expected to develop an understanding of democracy as a way of life. Since society desires our schools to prepare students to take their places in a democratic social order, the school must give students the opportunity to engage in democratic activities. The core program strives to provide for teacher-pupil planning. The extent to which this ideal is accomplished varies with the situation involved. Maturity of students, their social development, and the nature of the topic to be studied—all of these influence teacher-pupil planning. However, teachers of the core attempt to help students develop social responsibility so that they may be increasingly able to plan on any cooperative enterprise.

Social problems can best be met and understood when all the facts involved and the basic principles involved are known. The field of social studies is only one source of these facts. All areas of subject matter are needed before a thorough understanding can be had in any area. Thus the core curriculum through character building, the investigation of social problems carried out by means of materials from all pertinent sources, and an orderly variety of experiences for the pupil greatly serves the demands of society.

All children have common, keenly felt needs. Among these are feelings of need for physical well-being, economic well-being, spiritual well-being, and the need for a feeling of belonging. Within these needs lies great significance for classroom teachers and the school curriculum. Each individual feels at one time or another the creative urge. The core makes provisions for the expression of this urge.

Developmental tasks of youth and needs of youth have been classified by various authors. For example, in *The American High School*, Caswell lists the following developmental tasks of adolescents:

1. Coming to terms with their own bodies
2. Learning new relationships to their age mates
3. Achieving independence from their parents
4. Achieving adult social and economic status
5. Acquiring self-confidence and a system of values

Alberty classified the problems and needs of junior high school youth into the following major areas:

1. Personal health and living
2. Achieving a sense of personal security
3. Developing and maintaining situations in which satisfying achievements may occur
4. Developing and maintaining ever-widening interests and appreciations
5. Achieving a social outlook on life

Certainly, any one of these areas is worthy of consideration as a part of the core program. They are broad areas, the specifics of which should be geared to the developmental level of the group which will investigate and discuss them.

GOALS FOR SCHOOL PERSONNEL POLICIES

Educators are out to raise the prestige of the public school teacher by requiring more and broader training for candidates and by giving teachers more freedom in the classrooms. Over 1,000 educators met in Washington, D. C., June 25-29 for the Twelfth Annual Conference of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association. Discussion centered on school personnel policies. Some of the major conclusions were:

1. The teacher supply and demand picture will brighten only if fully qualified teachers are employed as rapidly as possible.

2. Personnel policies and practices should take into account individual needs and the performance of competent teachers.

3. A salary schedule should be written and it should recognize the purpose of all school personnel policies—to secure and hold the best teachers. Teachers and administrators should be paid according to the amount of responsibility they carry. Opinions were scattered on whether or not some type of merit plan should figure in the setting of salaries. There was not agreement over whether or not every teacher, regardless of specialized field, should be paid on a salary schedule with no extra remuneration for extra work, but with a balancing of teaching and extra class loads.

4. Conferees agreed that the significance of “freedom to teach and learn” should be spelled out in order to ease tensions now being felt by many teachers.

5. Particular recognition should be given to the fact that instruction is basic and that the purpose of administration is to facilitate the educative process.

6. Teachers should be assigned to teach in areas and at levels for which they are prepared.

7. Professional loads should be clearly defined and equated in terms of released time or salary or both.

8. Classes should be held to a reasonable size. Coming into play in this point are such factors as needs and ability levels of students, the subject nature or grade level taught, and the availability of equipment.

9. The conferences strongly called for certification reciprocity between the states.

10. Opinion was divided over whether or not prior teaching experience should be given full credit in a new school system.

Supervision and Rating Are Compatible

JOHN B. CROSSLEY

THOUGH no known study is available to justify statistically, the statement it probably can be truthfully said that, in the majority of secondary schools in the United States, no member of the education staff other than the principal of the school is charged with the direct responsibility for the supervision of instruction and the rating of teachers. Undoubtedly, this condition relates directly to the fact that most secondary schools in the nation are not large enough to justify the employment of sufficient staff to assign these duties to other than the top administrator.

Assuming, then, that the principal will do the supervision and rating which is done, these duties must be added to other administrative responsibilities affecting teaching personnel. The principal becomes the all-inclusive personality in regard to members of his staff in that he is primarily responsible for the selection of his teachers and for their morale, their assignment to teaching and other duties, their in-service training, their inspiration, and their supervision and rating.

There are many educators who believe that this puts the principal in an untenable position, for he cannot at the same time rate and discipline teachers on the one hand, and inspire and help them on the other. There is an equally strong opinion, however, on the part of probably as many educators that, skillfully done by the able administrator, all of these responsibilities and duties can be incorporated in one person.

If supervision and rating are the responsibility of the principal, then these duties deserve his most serious attention and challenge his professional ability. Without superior teaching, his school cannot meet its prime purpose, and superior teaching on the part of the total staff cannot be secured and maintained without helpful supervision and the assurance that only highly qualified teachers are retained. Barr, Burton, and Brueckner's *Supervision* gives an excellent outline statement of this subject—"Supervision Is Leadership."

1. Evaluating the educational product in the light of accepted objectives of education
 - a. The cooperative determination and critical analysis of aims
 - b. The selection and application of the means of appraisal
 - c. The analysis of the data to discover strength and weakness in the product
2. Studying the teaching-learning situation to determine the antecedents of satisfactory and unsatisfactory pupil growth and achievement
 - a. Studying the course of study and the curriculum-in-operation
 - b. Studying the materials of instruction, the equipment, and the socio-physical environment of learning and growth

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- c. Studying the factors related to instruction (the teachers' personality, academic and professional training, techniques)
- d. Studying the factors present in the learner (capacity, interest, work habits, etc.)
3. Improving the teaching-learning situation
 - a. Improving the course of study and the curriculum-in-operation
 - b. Improving the materials of instruction, the equipment, and the socio-physical environment of learning and growth
 - c. Improving the factors related directly to instruction
 - d. Improving factors present in the learner which affect his growth and achievement
4. Evaluating the objectives, methods, and outcomes of supervision
 - a. Discovering and applying the techniques of evaluation
 - b. Evaluating the results of given supervisory program, including factors which limit the success of these programs
 - c. Evaluating and improving the personnel of supervision¹

The short definition, "supervision is leadership," is noteworthy. If the principal considers himself an educational leader, it follows that through supervision, as outlined above, he operates as a leader, and the act of supervision is not, as has unfortunately sometimes been claimed, that of a "super-critic" or a "super-snooper." It would appear that, if the principal could develop responsibilities as administrator-leader-supervisor in the minds of his faculty, action in the area of supervision would not only be acceptable but also desirable to teachers.

As the term "supervision" is sometimes misconstrued, so the term "rating" is psychologically unfortunate. However, the duties of the principal suggested above make it necessary that qualifying statements as to the over-all ability of teachers be given when the time comes for decision as to retention or dismissal. For lack of a better term, it should be agreed that principals must "rate" their teachers.

Rating, like supervision, should be a cooperative effort on the part of the principal and teacher to improve teaching. To give a fair and intelligent rating demands a comprehensive understanding by the principal of all aspects of the teacher's contribution to the school. The relationship between the teacher and the community, the teacher and the parents of students taught, cooperation with colleagues, desire to grow in the profession—these and many other factors are the concern of the principal as he faces the different problem of rating. Possibly of greatest significance is the actual work of the teacher in the classroom. To establish a fair evaluation of the effectiveness of the teacher, then, demands, among other things, classroom visitation and observation. In the area of supervision, it is highly desirable that the relationship between the teacher and the principal in his supervisory capacity be one where the teacher asks for supervisory help. Unfortunately, in the area of rating, the responsibility on the administrator is so great that observation must be accomplished and a request from the teacher cannot always be awaited.

Again, successful rating is based on a mutual understanding. The wise

¹A. S. Barr; William H. Burton; and Leo J. Brueckner. *Supervision*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc. 1947. p. 12.

principal sees that his faculty understands his responsibility in this area. He must strive to win the respect of his staff, certainly to the degree that they believe his rating will be fair.

The form below has been found to be a satisfactory tool when properly used by the administrator for his evaluation of observation of the teacher in the classroom, and is suggested as a valuable tool for the dual responsibility of supervision and rating:

In using this form, it is strongly recommended that it be completed by the principal *after* his visitation. It is strongly recommended that the principal make no notes while in the classroom. Assuming that the principal has a responsibility to a superintendent, it is recommended that

Form A.

REPORT OF PRINCIPAL'S CLASSROOM VISITS

TEACHER CLASS HOUR DATE

I. *Physical Characteristics of Classroom:*

1. Ventilation
2. Lighting
3. Temperature
4. Seating Arrangements
5. Decorations
6. Displays
7. Orderliness

II. *Teaching:*

1. Are classroom activities in line with stated objectives?

.....

2. Student Reactions

.....

3. Work in Progress

.....

4. Evaluation

.....

Principal

this form, or any other used, be filled out in triplicate—one copy for the principal, one for the teacher, and one for the superintendent.

To accomplish full value from the classroom visit, it is essential that a personal conference of the principal and teacher follow as soon after each visitation as possible and, preferably, not later than within the next twelve hours. Unfortunately, many teachers, no matter how kind the principal, are always worried by classroom visitations. They need an honest evaluation reported to them as quickly as possible. It is in this conference that the principal in his role of leader also is enabled to carry out many of his supervisory responsibilities. Should the visitation form show any question or criticism by the principal, it is in this conference that he gives the teacher an opportunity to elaborate on the point and finds for himself an opportunity to give assistance to improve the situation. It is preferred that the summary of each conference be written by the principal and, here again, copies provided the teacher and the superintendent.

The form below is a suggested device for use of the summary evaluation of the success of the teacher. Here again, the administrator finds an opportunity to call to the attention of the instructor areas where he or other members of the staff might assist in improving the teacher's services. Psychologically, it has a peculiar value in that the first notations made can compliment the teacher in areas of particular success.

Use of such a form suggests again the value of a written classroom visitation report, for at least a part of the summary evaluation will normally refer to observations made during classroom visitations.

Because of the contractual nature of teachers' employment, timing must enter into any rating plan. It is recommended that, if a *Teacher Evaluation Report* similar to Form B is used, the first report should be supplied the teacher no later than the close of the first week of the second semester. While consistent evaluation should be indicated in early conferences, particularly those following classroom visitations, it is probable that the principal will find it difficult to have a very definite opinion until after the teacher has served at least a semester.

Here too, it is essential that the teacher be supplied with a copy of the evaluation and that a comprehensive conference be held between the teacher and the principal for a full discussion of the written statements. By such a method and by providing the evaluation at approximately mid-year, the teacher is provided ample opportunity to improve any points of weakness which may be noted. Certainly, such a method should eliminate the tragic situation where, upon receipt of notice of dismissal or request for resignation at the close of the school year, the teacher honestly believes that he was not given fair warning that the administration was not satisfied with his services and was given no opportunity to improve.

It is suggested that a second similar evaluation report be completed no later than April 1. This later report should include in its final statement the recommendation of the principal regarding the re-employment or

TEACHER EVALUATION REPORT		Form B
Teacher	Department	
Subjects taught		
Points of strength		
.....		
.....		
.....		
Points where improvement might be made		
.....		
.....		
.....		
.....		
		Principal

possible dismissal of the teacher. Here, again, copies should be supplied the teacher, the superintendent. It also would be preferable that the principal-teacher conference be held for an enlargement of the evaluation summary.

An added advantage of the use of the form suggested above, and particularly of supplying the superintendent with copies of all visitation reports and the summary conference, is that this places in the superintendent's files a rather comprehensive review of the continuing evaluation of each teacher by the principal. This material is of extreme value as the superintendent compiles his final recommendation for action by the board of trustees.

The dual responsibility of the principal as a supervisor and as the one primarily responsible for the rating of teachers is a most difficult assignment. If, however, administrator and teacher recognize that the real purpose of the supervisor is assistance and that rating of teachers is a necessary essential to providing good education, the fair and able administrator can combine the two roles satisfactorily in his own services to his teachers.

The use of regular, written evaluations of classroom observations, the consistent follow-up of each by a personal conference, the provision for an early, written evaluation of the teacher's total value to the school, supplemented also by personal conferences, provide helpful methods to succeed in these important and difficult responsibilities.

Classroom Teachers and Merit Rating

MACK A. RALSTON

AN EXAMINATION of some of the issues presented for and against merit rating leaves the impression for some that teachers, as a group, do not favor the activity. This is frequently created by resolutions which have been passed by various teachers' organizations.

Much of the literature supports this conclusion. Articles are written supporting or denouncing the activity. Those that take a negative position seem to be based upon an assumption that teachers do not think it will work. Others take the position that, like it or not, it is coming and we had better get ready for it.

It is recognized that many persons qualified to teach do not become active in the profession upon the completion of their training program. It is also known that many teachers withdraw annually from active service. While many have reasons that seem logical to most of us (*e.g.*, military service, starting a family, moving necessitated for reasons of personal health, *etc.*), it is apparent that some qualified teachers are not active due to other considerations. Could it be that the "slow" progress in professional status, as measured by levels on the single-salary schedule, is a factor in discouraging promising young persons from entering or continuing in the profession?

In an effort to gather some objective data concerning this situation, an attempt was made to determine the opinions of a selected group of classroom teachers concerning specific aspects of ability recognition. The teachers selected were those from that group in which the drop-out rate seems to be the highest (*i.e.*, those with less than five years of teaching experience).

A group of 151 teachers, residing in twenty states, participated in the investigation. They were asked, among other things, the following questions:

In your opinion, do differences exist in teaching ability?

Have you been able to identify what, in your opinion, was a difference in teaching ability among teachers with whom you have taught?

Do you believe that excellent or outstanding teachers can be identified?

Do you believe that a group of teachers, if they had the opportunity to work together, could identify excellent or outstanding teachers?

Do you feel that administrators are capable of identifying outstanding teachers?

Do you feel that teachers are capable of developing methods for identifying the existence of outstanding teachers?

Do you feel that teachers and administrators, working together, could identify outstanding teachers?

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Do you feel that lay persons (those not trained as educators, but interested in education) could contribute to the identification of outstanding teachers?

Interest in the subject was evidenced by the willingness of teachers to participate in the project and by their willingness to respond positively to questions designed to evaluate their opinions concerning certain aspects of the subject. Many of the replies had additional remarks written on them by the teachers. An examination of the replies revealed that:

1. Most (over 97 per cent) teachers believe that a difference in teaching ability exists and that it is possible to identify this difference.
2. A majority of teachers believe that they are capable of identifying these differences, and that teachers as a group and teachers and administrators cooperatively could identify this difference in teaching ability.
3. Many teachers believe that lay persons could contribute to the identification of outstanding teachers. This is true more often of women than of men teachers.
4. A majority of teachers believe outstanding teachers should be rewarded in some manner. This is true more often of men than of women teachers.
5. The most acceptable form of reward is promotion to positions of greater responsibility, with salary bonuses ranking second.
6. Descriptive titles as a form of reward were favored by only a few teachers.
7. Married and single teachers showed no significant difference in their opinions with respect to the questions considered in this study.
8. The opinions of men and women teachers did differ significantly with respect to questions concerning the part which lay persons could contribute to the identification of outstanding teachers. Women teachers more often than men felt that lay persons could contribute to this identification.
9. The opinions of men and women teachers also differed significantly concerning the question of desirability of reward for outstanding teachers. More men than women felt that outstanding teachers should be rewarded.

It cannot be assumed, of course, that this is typical of the thinking of all teachers. Those in different age and experience levels may hold different opinions. However, it would be just as defensible, on the basis of the data examined, to assume that others are just as interested. If this be true, many of us need to revise our concepts of "what teachers think" about merit recognition. It may be that many of us will need to ask specifically what aspects of merit rating we are considering when we make assumptions about how classroom teachers feel about it.

CONSERVATION CHART

A new conservation teaching aid has been released by the Forest Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture. Any teacher may get one chart free from the Forest Service, Washington 25, D. C., or from any other Forest Service office. The chart, 40 by 27 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches, is attractively produced in color and is pictorial with a limited amount of text.

Fringe Benefits and the Teacher Shortage

FRANCIS L. SWEET

B.W. GORMAN'S article in the April 1956 issue of the *American School Board Journal* points out many of the things that the present-day school system needs to do to help improve teacher shortage. He mentions needing qualified educators to provide the right kind of leadership in administrative positions, and the schools need supervisory and consultant staffs to handle today's intricate problems of personnel, materials, curriculum, in-service training; and clerical help to manage routine reports, bookkeeping of funds, writing letters, etc. A good salary schedule and a fair, equitable system for employing and paying substitute teachers are two more essentials that are needed as an aid to securing and keeping qualified teachers.

As educators, there are two additional things we must concern ourselves with in trying to solve the teacher shortage. One of these is the kind of teacher training available. We should seriously examine the present teacher training programs and re-evaluate their contents, availability, and total curriculum with an eye to making them more readily available, more practical, and more meaningful in order, *first*, to attract good people to enroll as education students, and *second*, to keep them interested, motivated, and active contributors to educational thought and research.

If we reflect momentarily on the average type of program that the education student is forced to endure, some of the needed changes become immediately apparent. This is a problem that the colleges and universities must tackle if the teacher shortage problem is ever going to be solved.

The *second* item for our consideration as educators is what may be called "fringe benefits." Fringe benefits consist of in-service training programs, orientation programs, consultant and supervisory services, availability of teaching aids and materials, and other items related to the financial aspect of teaching. As Mr. Gorman points out, "good salary schedules are essential," but they are not enough to attract and keep good people. Conscientious school boards and administrators should provide other types of benefits for their staffs, (clerical, teaching, and maintenance). Among these other benefits may be:

1. Merit raises on the basis of—training, experience, additional course work, effectiveness in teaching, and participation in school and community affairs
2. Improved increment program—give larger increments at first, ~~less~~ during the middle steps of the increment program, and more during the period when the older staff members need an additional incentive toward keeping their work up to standard
3. Better sick leave and maternity leave policies:
 - a. A generous allotment of time that is cumulative up to a certain number of days—most teachers do not abuse their sick leave and often come to school when it is in better interest of the students not to come

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- b. Maternity leave with pay up to 30 days and half pay for a shorter additional period
 4. Opportunity to participate in credit unions—to make money easier to borrow at times of need or financial stress, such as sickness, accident, convention expenses, and additional schooling.
 5. Opportunity to participate in a good health, life, accident, and/or auto insurance program—a program that operates on a non-profit basis such as that provided for teachers by the Colorado Education Association
 6. Retirement pay program—matched funds for a private retirement program and/or social security program
 7. Provision for staff attendance at conventions, area educational meetings, and association meetings by allowing money for travel expenses and/or registration fee
 8. Equalized teaching load—curricula and extra curricular load
 9. Staff participation in curriculum revision—philosophy, objectives, contents, and materials
 10. Staff participation in policy making—school regulations and personnel policies
 11. Less participation in extracurricular activities of doubtful educational value—make these activities co-curricular and let staff participation be on the basis of real interest, thus allowing more time for all staff members to have more social and family life
 12. Better provision for testing students to take the guess work out of placing and guiding students—personality, achievement, interest, aptitude, and intelligence
 13. Shorter and more meaningful staff and PTA meetings:
 - a. Agenda previously announced
 - b. Organized and planned around an interesting topic
 - c. Only one out of four should be a routine business meeting
 14. Afternoon coffee table where teachers can relax and discuss things with one another
 15. Alleviate clerical work for teachers so they may spend their time teaching—record keeping, collecting money, and scoring standardized tests
 16. Provision for a professional library
 17. Help for the new or beginning teacher
- In the Community*
- a. Aid in securing housing
 - b. Planned tour of the community
 - c. Holiday social programs
 - d. Provision for temporary financial and transportation aid
- In the School*
- a. Make all records available to teachers so they may become better acquainted with students and their backgrounds
 - b. Provide for early study of texts, materials, courses of study, and policies handbook
 - c. Make referral sources available to the staff, such as doctor, nurse, psychologist, and guidance personnel
 - d. Have regular conferences with departments and administration
 - e. Provide a policy book
 - f. Provide periodic supervisory and guidance bulletins
 - g. Provide a free planning period
 - h. Give assistance in planning
 - i. Provide guidance by an older staff member
 - j. Acquaint staff with established customs and traditions

These are only a few of the many "fringe benefits" that can be utilized for better morale within a school system. If followed conscientiously, these suggestions will make a big dent in the teacher shortage problem.

An Emerging Issue in Secondary Education

ROBERT C. McKEAN

TODAY, with increasing insistency, a crucial issue has begun to emerge in secondary education. The issue is not new, but certain conditions operating at the present time are coloring it with real urgency so that it cannot be ignored for long. Soon we must carefully re-define the high-school's role in the education of modern youth. This re-definition is needed because:

1. Other educative agencies and groups in the community have changed, their characteristics and functions have changed, and we must clarify our role in this job we share with them.

2. Tremendous pressures (for some, an impossible combination of pressures) are forcing fundamental changes in the function and role of many high schools today. These pressures are the result of the overwhelming mass of enrollments, severe shortages of classroom space and teachers, tight money, attacks on education, *etc.*

Under these pressures we may have drifted in one or more directions. An important task facing our high schools is to assess constantly this drift and, at least, be aware of its direction.

EDUCATION FOR THE ACADEMICALLY ABLE

From what one hears and senses nationally, it is clear that some schools have begun moving toward the position that "We won't be able to handle all the teenage youth, so let's take only those who are able scholastically to profit from our curricula." This movement usually begins something like this.

1. A school district, overcrowded and short on teachers, classrooms, and supplies, begins to be *less efficient* in checking up on chronic absentees. Pupil personnel people simply don't look very hard for the kids who are playing hookey. This relieves overcrowding to some degree and makes the teachers happier for these students tend to be the discipline problems.

2. Next, the school board, members of higher education institutions in the area, parents, *etc.* are heard talking about "keeping our academic standards high." Soon teachers begin to believe this and force more students out of the school.

3. Before long, public statements appear to the effect that "All children shouldn't go to high school." Baxter, Beckman, Bestor, and others are freely quoted as experts. The desired impression may be created by inviting the appropriate people to speak.

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Well, this suggests the direction of the drift we are beginning to see in many areas—a drift that has some disturbing implications to modern secondary education. Rather than this path, which few of us want to take, another, more positive step seems to be indicated.

We need to face up to the task of defining the high-school's role in modern America. Under today's pressures we must spell out the things for which we realistically feel we can take responsibility. An important part of this task is the need to clarify for us and for the public our relationships to the other educative agencies and groups (*i.e.*, home, church, the mass media of communication, libraries, museums, youth organizations, civic groups, *etc.*) in the community and encourage them to accept their share of the load.

A COMPLEX PROBLEM

Certainly this problem is complex; however, some of the important parts seem to be:

1. American secondary-school people have accepted responsibility for a tremendous variety of educational objectives—everything from spelling to moral and spiritual values. By accepting responsibility for these, we have thereby placed ourselves in line for criticism if they are not attained.

2. In selling our worth in the interests of public support for school bonds, *etc.*, we may have sold more than we can produce. We may have oversold ourselves and now the public is checking up on the advertising.

3. Present criticisms of our schools seems to be taking two lines in this regard: (a) schools are criticised for not developing obedience, respect for authority, a sense of responsibility, wholehearted allegiance to our way of life, *etc.*, and (b) schools are criticised for taking over basic functions and responsibilities of the home and church.

4. Parents, partly because they believe what they want to believe of what we tell them, are *abdicated* family responsibilities in favor of the school.

5. Many teachers are stating, as goals, certain outcomes that they really aren't sure how to produce; *i.e.*, How many of our classroom teachers are reasonably sure how to develop attitudes in the classroom? How many of them consciously try and are able to say with some assurance that they are doing so?

6. Finally, secondary-school people have rarely tried to make it clear to parents and the public just what we think we really can accomplish in the classroom under 1957 conditions. Within what limits do we work? We must spell this out for ourselves and our patrons.

THE ISSUE

Actually the issue boils down to the fact that we can't be *all* things to *all* children, but we can be *some* things to *all* children. Here is precisely where our definition is needed. This doesn't suggest that we throw out

any of our seriously considered aims or goals; but what seems imperative is the need for a clarification, in our own minds, of what we realistically can do in these goal areas today.

As we re-define the role of the high school, we must examine carefully the over-all responsibility we share with the other educative agencies in the community. We must make clear the things we realistically can and will take responsibility for in the total education of our youth. Ultimately, this may be the most significant thing we could do to bring us together—church, home, school, and other educative agencies and groups—sharing the task, each doing the job it is best fitted to do to develop the kind of product we all want and need in modern America.

NEA WORKS WITH TV-RADIO NETWORKS AND PRODUCERS

The National Education Association, which received the go-ahead signal last July from its 700,000-plus membership at the Philadelphia convention to speed up the Association's expanded service program, has announced the opening of a TV-Radio office in New York. William G. Carr, executive secretary, reports that the office has been established to maintain liaison with network officials and producers to assure "quality programming in the public interest" on commercial television and radio. Richard Krolik, recently associated with NBC's "Wide, Wide World" and "Today," and formerly in charge of television activities for *Life* magazine, has been retained by NEA to be the Association's New York representative. "The educators of this country believe that the time has come for more citizens to support the efforts of conscientious broadcasters to raise the level of program content," Dr. Carr stated in his announcement. "We believe that the National Education Association, as it celebrates in 1957 its Centennial year, can exert a constructive influence upon commercial television and radio in their efforts to develop public understanding of education."

NEA members will be kept informed of the content of forthcoming TV and radio programs through the 28 publications that the Association distributes to its members and to affiliated groups. An additional function of the New York office will be to cooperate with producers in presenting aspects of education on their programs. Meetings have been held with producers of CBS's "Twentieth Century" and "See It Now," and NBC's "Project 20" and "Wide, Wide World." Research facilities of NEA's Washington headquarters will be available for shows that will deal with schools, teachers, the needs of children and youth, and allied topics. Future plans of the NEA TV-radio office include the possibility of a weekly entertainment series, based on true stories of outstanding teachers; expanded services in TV-radio spot announcements and programming, and cooperation with local stations in the presentation of reports on education to their communities.

Physical Education Despite Inadequate Facilities

JOHN H. JENNY

ACCORDING to present standards the physical education program for the girls at the Brown Vocational High School in Wilmington, Delaware, is a relatively fine one. Yet this high school is one in which the facilities are definitely not conducive to carrying on an enriched program within the walls of the school. Its gymnasium is small and serves as a combination gymnasium and auditorium. In addition to this architectural dual purpose, the gymnasium must be shared by the boys and by the girls. There is no outside play area for this building which is situated in the heart of industrial and commercial Wilmington. Keeping in mind that this is a vocational high school and that it must first satisfy its primary purpose for existence, its location is ideal for carrying on and maintaining a cooperative program with commercial establishments and industrial plants. With this in mind the building was nestled in the small acreage which could be purchased. No large areas could be left "idle" or used for play areas alone. The ground was "too valuable." Space was at a premium.

There are still those in the physical education and recreation profession who hide behind the lack of facilities and thus seriously limit the program of activities for youth. This is not true at Brown Vocational High School in the stage setting which has just been described. Each girl participates in a wide variety of activities designed for securing physical fitness and for providing skills for leisure time. Through the cooperation of Miss Steel of the staff of the YWCA, the use of the pool has been secured. This facility provides a more than adequate outlet for the learning of aquatic skills. Each girl at Brown is required to learn to swim. This requirement in a school which does not boast of its own pool is to be praised and admired. Through the cooperation of Mr. Kinsman, physical education director at the YMCA, Cliff Garvin, Executive Secretary, and Melvin Willin, and other Y staff members, the bowling alleys have been secured. Here the girls learn the skills which they later use for bowling "with the girls," "with the family," or "in the industrial bowling league." With the assistance of John Quinn, Director of Parks and Recreation, and Frank Newlin, Director of Recreation, the City Park close to Brown Vocational School is used for outdoor activities. Here areas for tennis, archery, and other activities are located in the natural surroundings which the girls will continue to use when they have left Brown. The only school facility which is used in the program is the

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gymnasium. Here, when the boys are not scheduled for it, Mrs. Howard conducts her more formalized physical fitness activities and basketball activities.

"To provide activities which suit the needs of the individual student," this principle of program building in physical education is thoughtfully carried out by the physical education instructor for girls at Brown Vocational. In developing her program, Mrs. Howard has kept in mind that not only the curriculum major (beauty culture, restaurant services, etc.) are terminal, but in many cases the physical education offerings as well. She has thus planned the activity offerings to meet the present needs and the future leisure of the "working gal."

The fact is that the lack of physical education facilities in this vocational school is probably an advantage rather than a detriment to the program activities. It is quite true that at times William White, the principal, Joseph Bradshaw, of the physical education department, and Mrs. Anna Howard, probably do not consider this to be an advantage, but, when they look at it in light of the needs of the future worker, it is probably a most realistic approach to the problems which confront the teacher of physical educational activities in a vocational high school.

To the college professor and authors on recreation education, the use of community resources provides a more natural and realistic approach to the after-school life of the girls than if the school provided all the facilities within its walls. The girls at Brown soon learn that for their recreation they must walk to the YWCA, the bowling alleys, and the city parks, for it is in these facilities that Mrs. Howard carries on her physical education program for the girls at Brown.

No statistics have been culled to date regarding the Brown graduate and her leisure time pursuits, but it is apparent that, after the program at Brown Vocational High School, she is adequately prepared to meet and satisfy the modern aim of physical education which lists "withstanding the ordinary strains of life," and continues to point out "and to successfully cope with competition in her chosen field." Not only is the aim of physical education fulfilled, but the aim of recreation education as well. After having participated on the intracity physical education facilities while at the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, the girls do not find it inconvenient to walk or ride to the YWCA or the municipal parks after work hours to participate on the "plant" team or to play with friends in a game of tennis or a round of golf. While at high school, she was accustomed to such "inconveniences" when her wise and able physical education teacher used her personal sports equipment and community resources to supplement and enrich each girl's high-school physical education experience.

A Resolution on Mathematics

RECENTLY, a spate of printed matter has unfolded shocking stories of the state of scientific education in this country. Newspapers, magazines, and reports of committees and commissions have told the public that, both as regards quality and quantity, our resources of teachers and students in mathematics and science are markedly inadequate. Some call the situation "a national emergency." Writers and speakers point out with urgency and frequency the need for increasing the supply of scientific manpower forthwith.

The undoubted seriousness of the situation has led many to attempt to search out its causes. Some of this searching has been objective and valuable, pointing out paths to worth-while improvement; some of it, on the other hand, has resulted in distortions of facts and in fruitless finger-pointing. One of the most popular scapegoats is the high school—its curriculum and its teachers have faced criticism that is not always supported by the facts, or conducive to positive remedial action.

In particular, statistics are often used to make the picture blacker than it is. Percentage enrollments in algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are sometimes given without any reference to the changed nature of the population since 1900; there is often no appreciation whatever of the problems of mass education. In 1900, a very large percentage of those in high school went on to college; in 1957, this is no longer the case. Pamphlet No. 118, issued by the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, calls attention to some of these unfortunate misrepresentations.

... It has been stated that only one out of twenty-two high-school students takes physics, whereas actually the ratio is closer to one out of five. The number of pupils in chemistry has not declined thirty per cent during the past sixty years—it has increased more than twentyfold. Two thirds of the high-school pupils take algebra, instead of one fourth. ... Some surveys have compared the number of pupils in a particular course to the total enrollment in the school, rather than to the enrollment in the grade where the course is normally offered. On the former basis, if the course is a twelfth-grade course and all twelfth-graders take it, we would expect the per cent to be about 19, since about nineteen per cent of all high-school pupils are in the twelfth grade. This could be misinterpreted to mean that only nineteen per cent of the pupils who complete high school have taken the course.

In order to appreciate the nature of the problem, to understand something of its causes, and to take intelligent action toward its solution, certain facts must be faced:

This resolution on mathematics was presented and unanimously adopted by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics at its Annual Meeting in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on March 29, 1957.

1. The explosive development of mathematics since 1900 is probably without precedent in any other branch of learning, with the possible exception of physics. This embarrassment of mathematical riches has necessitated an up-dating in terms of subject matter for teachers at all levels.

2. The new developments in mathematics have been accompanied by a spectacular surge of new applications in the physical sciences, in the social sciences, in industry, and in national defense. Application rides hard on the heels of discovery. The requirements for those trained in mathematics today demand new goals, new content, new textbooks, and teachers with new training. A reshuffling of old materials will not suffice. A number of committees, commissions, and college staffs are now facing this fact frankly; the National Science Foundation is providing funds for a major attack on the problem.

3. The need for re-evaluation of aims, curriculum, methods, and teacher training is not only a problem for the high school; it also demands attention from first grade right through college. The colleges are quite aware of this. A committee of the Mathematical Association of America reports that "there exists wide-spread dissatisfaction with the existing undergraduate program in mathematics." Already a number of colleges have developed courses radically different from the traditional program.

4. This great need for a better job of teaching mathematics at all levels places a special strain on those who must find the staff for the job. The graduate in mathematics formerly had little but teaching to which he might turn; now he has many vocational outlets. Opportunity no longer knocks but ones, and schools often find it impossible to compete with industry for the services of well-trained graduates.

In view of the foregoing, it seems right and proper that the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics should at this time make known its awareness of the fact that the special needs of our time present special problems as yet unsolved. Since the Council has an important role to play in finding a solution to these problems, it should recall to the public its continued readiness to bear its full share in the task that faces all those responsible for the training of our scientists.

BE IT THEREFORE RESOLVED:

THAT the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics continue in the future, as in the past, to strive unceasingly for high, professional standards for teachers of mathematics as regards subject matter, professional training, and certification requirements.

THAT the National Council keep in close touch with other groups engaged in the task of improving the program and presentation of mathematics, and support the good work of these groups in every way possible.

THAT the National Council urge teachers of mathematics to take advantage of the many opportunities now available for in-service training—during the school year, in summer institutes, and, where possible, during leaves of absence.

THAT the National Council continue, with increased vigor, to improve the training of its membership through its Yearbooks, *The Mathematics Teacher*, *The Arithmetic Teacher*, and its other publications.

THAT the National Council use every means at its disposal to encourage students to study mathematics as long as they are able to profit from it, realizing that quantity production without adequate quality will aggravate rather than ameliorate the situation.

THAT the National Council continue to pursue its study of goals and curriculum with a view to evolving and spelling out in detail programs of mathematical study that will challenge students of all levels of ability.

THAT the National Council urge its members to face squarely their special responsibilities to the very gifted in mathematics.

THAT the National Council work towards an ever-increasing cooperation between professional mathematicians, departments of education, and high-school teachers of mathematics, in the firm belief that in such cooperation lies our best hope of providing the scientifically trained personnel to meet the nation's needs.

THE EDUCATOR'S AWARD

The Delta Kappa Gamma Society, international, announces the Educator's Award of \$1,000 to be given for the most significant contribution to education written by a woman between April 1, 1956, and April 1, 1958. This is the seventh award offered by the Society. The first one, given in August 1946 was won by Dorothy Canfield Fisher for *Our Young Folks*; the last one (1956) by Kate Hevmer Mueller, *Educating Women for a Changing World*.

The work must have been printed prior to April 1, 1958, in order to be entered in competition. In order to expedite critical evaluation, copies of the publications, accompanied by a letter indicating they are being entered in the competition, should be sent to each member of the Panel. Unpublished manuscripts will not be considered by the judges. Contributions should possess excellence in style and subject matter; they should be of national rather than local interest, having a bearing upon the education of all Americans. Books will be judged by a panel of distinguished educators composed of Dr. Mildred English, chairman (Box 722, Milledgeville, Georgia), Dr. Emma Reinhardt, Dr. Ellen Frogner, Dr. R. L. Eyman, and Dr. Virgil M. Rogers.

The Award for the current biennium will be presented at the international convention of the Delta Kappa Gamma Society in Minneapolis, Minnesota, August 16, 1958. By offering this prize the Society hopes to encourage the high quality of writing in the educational field as has been stimulated in the arts and sciences by similar awards.

Administrative Aspects of a Slow Learner Program

TOM M. DAVIS

THE TEACHER

IN INSTITUTING a program for low I. Q. students, a principal or administrator usually must decide which of his teachers are to be assigned such students. At first glance this does not seem to be a serious problem. Supposing that not much can be done with slow learners anyhow; why not assign the weakest teacher, the youngest teacher, or the teacher in disfavor. This precludes that slow learners are unteachable and that any teacher will do. Closer examination will prove that both these ideas are fallacious although assumed all too often.

To assign the weakest teacher leads to classroom situations that before long evolve into only study periods or into organized chaos with serious disciplinary problems. Assigning the newest teacher or the youngest teacher to such classes on the theory that young teachers have more energy or enthusiasm is also fallacious. We are losing too many of our young teachers today to other fields to risk such a sink-or-swim policy. Not only that but young teachers have their hands full learning school procedures and getting adjusted to their jobs and they lack the experience to cope with the unusual learning situations to be faced.

The teacher in disfavor then who has the experience is the one who might do. Such an assignment will be a penalty and show him how well off he was before. Again, this is not the case. There is no sound reason for assuming that such an assignment will lead to better cooperation from the teacher. Rather, such an assignment has the opposite effect and leads to even more strained relations. Such strained relations do not lead to adequate handling of an important problem.

Who then to assign? Certainly not the teacher who has demonstrated superiority in the classroom. This would mean that the average or superior student would be deprived of good teaching to the slow learner's gain. Is it right to enrich the slow learner's program at the expense of those who could profit most from good teaching? Definitely not. What then is the solution?

Unfortunately, there is no clear-cut solution, but the writer would like to make the following recommendations:

1. Any teacher of average ability with at least a few years of experience may be assigned to slow-learner classes provided such teacher is well adjusted and has a good sense of humor.

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2. Once chosen, this teacher should be required, yes, required, to read some current books and articles on slow learners. This is absolutely necessary to successful teaching because too few teachers have any idea of the intellectual level of slow learners.

3. The assigned teacher should be called in for a special conference in which it is explained that the administrator is not making the assignment as a penalty or disciplinary measure. Why is such an explanation necessary? Simply to reassure the teacher and to maintain good morale.

4. At the above mentioned conference, it may be explained that teaching slow learners is a constant experiment and that it is not necessary to adhere completely to the textbook or to any set course of study. In fact, teachers should be encouraged to experiment.

5. Frequent conferences should be scheduled with the assigned teacher where procedures and practices may be discussed.

6. Teachers should be encouraged to take notes of the various classroom techniques employed and the degree of success attained.

7. Finally, unless the teacher indicates a desire to remain with such groups (this will often be the case), such an assignment should be rotated among the other teachers every year or two. Such a rotation can have only a beneficial effect since the experiences and techniques used can only result in better teaching.

THE CURRICULUM

1. Academic

Since the slow learner suffers from vocabulary deficiency and inability to read, it would be folly to drop all academic courses. Rather, must we continue to offer such courses primarily in basic English, mathematics, and citizenship. However, to continue to require them simply because they are needed or good for the student would also be foolish if they are beyond the comprehension of the student. Expecting the slow learner to assimilate our present-day courses in the above fields is the biggest folly of all.

Our courses must be made more basic and, above all, must be vitalized to the point where they hold both the interest and understanding of the student. To say that this is no easy task is an understatement. Too many of our administrators and teachers are hide bound by the past and archaic practices. They are afraid to make changes in these time-honored courses for fear of criticism, but at the same time they realize that present courses are inadequate. The writer is not advocating radical or revolutionary changes, but simply the instituting of more down to earth, more humane, more realistic courses. The writer feels that such a vitalizing effect can be obtained only if we enrich the vocabulary of the slow learner and improve his reading ability. The following recommendations might accomplish the task:

1. Courses in remedial reading, mathematics, and perhaps citizenship should be the rule.

2. These remedial courses should start on the intellectual level of the student, usually the fourth or fifth grade, and then work up to higher levels through a planned improvement program.

3. Mathematics should deal primarily with the real life experiences of shopping, running a home, paying bills, keeping simple accounts, *etc.*

4. Citizenship courses should dwell only lightly on world history or American history. These would act primarily as a springboard to our present local laws and democratic way of life through study of the purposes of police, fireman, councilmen, traffic laws, taxes, *etc.* on a local level which is more understandable to slow learners.

5. Audio-visual aids should have extensive use in the classroom.

6. Concrete examples and personal experiences should be employed wherever possible.

2. Vocational

In the past it has often been the practice to direct slow learners into vocational subjects on the theory that perhaps, while lacking word facility, they can work with their hands. Such a theory, while basically sound, has been defeated by not adapting the vocational subjects to the needs and understandings of the slow learner. It is just as fallacious to expect a slow learner to absorb machine shop, or auto repair, or typing, or office machines as it is to expect him to learn physics, chemistry, or algebra.

Here again, the slow learner can learn only if we adjust the courses to an attainable level. Even vocational courses must be basic and in keeping with the skill level of the student. Such courses may be made more basic in the same way advocated for academic courses. Items 5 and 6 from that section would also apply here with the following additions:

1. Vocational courses should start from the students own experiences, such as fixing a pipe around the house, repairing a driveway, making minor auto repairs with which he may be familiar, typing a personal letter to a friend, *etc.*

2. From these inauspicious beginnings build more advanced skills which lead to earning a living.

3. Courses in practical nursing, care and cleaning a home or office, basic woodworking, metalwork, office production such as running a mimeograph machine, ditto machine, *etc.* should be added to the program of the slow learner in place of academic electives.

4. Sampling or acquaintanceship courses rather than skill courses should be offered because few slow learners can attain the level of skill needed to hold a specialized job. There is a place, however, in factories or business for routine general work such as mail clerk, file clerk, general typist, *etc.*

COURSE CONTENT

We must not lower our standards! Why, when I was a student, I had to make seventy per cent of a perfect score before I could pass! How often we hear teachers and administrators give fourth with such clichés. The writer himself, has been guilty of such comments. Upon analysis, however, these comments come to light as either lack of knowledge of what a slow learner can be expected to learn, as the frustrations of a teacher who does not know how to cope with the situation, or as the unrealistic mutterings of an idealist.

The fact is that we do have slow learners and they cannot learn our

present course content very readily. Are we then to continue making excessive demands upon them which lead to frustration, sullenness, and emotional disturbances which in turn lead to disciplinary problems; or are we going to face the problem? Most educators, the writer feels sure, would prefer the latter even though it means watering down the course content and lowering standards. Course content may be watered down by reducing the amount of material to be covered and by simplifying the material and making problems easier. The writer advocates both methods if necessary correlated with the change in curriculum mentioned earlier.

SUMMARY

The problem of teaching the slow learner is here to stay. It cannot be solved by ignoring it. There is no easy solution, but much can be done by facing the problem and meeting it with the combined efforts by having good teaching, by reorganizing the curriculum, and by simplifying course content along more vitalized and realistic lines, starting from the student's own personal experience.

AIDS FOR DRIVER EDUCATION

The American Automobile Association, 1712 G Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., has recently announced the availability of nine publications on driver education. Sample copies of the publications will be sent without charge to teachers and others interested in driver education. These publications are:

1. *Short Courses in Driver Education*—This is a list of 1-, 2-, and 3-week courses designed for teachers who have only a limited amount of time for receiving instruction.
2. *College Courses in Driver Education*—This is a longer list of courses offered by colleges during the regular school year or during summer sessions.
3. *Effect of Driver Education on Attitudes*—This study indicated that, based on the tests used, a driver education course had little effect on the student's knowledge of driving or attitude.
4. *Catalog of Driver Education Equipment*—This recently revised bulletin lists various testing and training devices which are commonly used in driver education courses.
5. *Dual Control Announcement*—This briefly describes dual controls which have been developed to fit most cars.
6. *Intercorrelations of Driving Test Scores*—Research Report No. 58.
7. *Variability of Night Vision Scores*—Research Report No. 59.
8. *Effects of Driver Education on Knowledge and Attitude*—Research Report No. 60.
9. *Effectiveness of the Auto Trainer*—Research Report No. 62.

The Role and Practice of Democracy in Secondary Education

HIRSCH LAZAAR SILVERMAN

WITHOUT democratic freedom no search for truth is possible, no truth is even useful; and men and nations are then without justice, ethics, and religion. There are scientific grounds for man's faith in the possibility and probability of a better human world for children everywhere, in the realization of freedom, justice, and love in human relations. Such faith in the triumph of right in human society receives its impetus very largely from a dynamic functioning of democracy, especially in its effectiveness in the secondary schools of America.

We know that democracy is that way of life and the societal form, or pattern, which is inspired above every other with the consciousness of the dignity of man. But democracy involves education; and community participation must become an integral part of school learning if liberal education is to be released from its ivory tower and if we are to create a "living" democracy able to meet the challenges of racial and religious tensions, unemployment, delinquency, poverty, and crime. Democracy calls for a community of souls—it is essential to make democracy understandable and workable through right relationships with our fellowmen and through actual participation in their group living.

Before we consider how truly democratic conditions enhance the effective functioning of the personality of boys and girls in the high school, it is relevant to note now that Americans have plenty to tell the peoples of the world about what democracy is, the principles upon which it rests, and in accordance with which it grows. We should say very candidly in our classrooms that, while deploring democracy's defects, we are making a serious effort to form our life in America so that every individual may enjoy his rights and have equal opportunity to develop his talents. That is good news to people in many parts of the world whose lives, in their own countries, are considered worthless and for whom, under their form of life, there is little hope whatever. We should tell the peoples in foreign lands of the progress that has been made—that is being made—in America toward the realization of freedom for more and more people.

I am advocating, in brief, indoctrination of democracy in our classrooms in relation to its effect on man's personality. We should tell the world how we began with a very small degree of religious freedom,

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and how we have achieved a very real and satisfactory degree of religious freedom; how we began with educational opportunities limited to few children, and how we now have a nation-wide system of free public schools; how we began with very few Americans enjoying the right to vote, and how the recognition of the right to vote has been extended until it applies to both men and women of every race, creed, national origin, and class; and, too, how the fight against communism, fascism, discrimination, and prejudice in our country is proceeding. (And, so for ourselves, as teachers and administrators in America's schools the realization of what we have done, by God's grace, itself is the source of confidence that we can—and will—do more.)

But understanding reality is the most difficult form of thinking, and the one which disappears most rapidly and most frequently in all conditions of a people's mental depression. As teachers and school officials, we must try to remain normal people without undue mental setbacks; for only normal people give unity to their experiences by reflection. Under democracy, the personality of such normal people, relativistically speaking, is affected constantly by the learning processes and by correcting perceptions and conclusions all the time. When people act under social constraint and develop symptoms of obsession or prejudice or discrimination, they no longer serve as individuals in democracy. They lose their ability of reflective thinking, which demands the systematic arrangement or rearrangement of knowledge in the light of experience.

Social thinking brings us to a consideration of the role of religion and ethics and their effect on personality of pupils. The further the spiritual evolution of mankind advances, the more certain it appears that the path to genuine religiosity does not lie through the fear of life and the fear of death, but through striving after rational ethics in living. Democracy is essentially the workings of moral philosophy. One cannot have reasons for affirming democracy and, at the same time, deny the truths of philosophy, psychology, and religion. The ground of unity in democracy is a faith expressed in a system of doctrines. It lies in solidarity of sentiment, springing from common living, interdependence, interchange, tradition, the habits of every day. This abiding ethical and religious group requires two conditions: *one*, that our pupils are free to follow their differences; *the other*, that they are not balked and embittered by frustrations and miseries of any kind. Total personality in democracy is also affected by consideration for others; the attitudes of people as regards ownership of property; their actions in the movies, on streetcars, in trains, among children, with adults in public places—and with themselves, their families, and friends in their homes.

Man's destiny is determined ultimately not by changes in the map of the world, but by what happens to the souls of individuals. Unless we bring through the schools and education our young people to God, there is no hope for the future, even in democracy. World peace, too, must be based on recognition of the sovereignty of God, from which stems funda-

mental charity which is the brotherhood of man. If our churches have anything to contribute to a chaotic and despairing world, they must act concretely, and with precision, in a democratic framework, at the time and place where decisions are made to regulate the life of peoples and nations.

One concrete function that the churches might perform would be to focus public attention on the progress of human rights throughout the civilized world, and openly praise or condemn, regardless of religious or national group, the situation as it honestly is in our day. Spiritual progress has lagged behind material advance because of man's greed, selfishness, and irreligion. It is not man's political constitutions that need to be changed, but the hearts in the men themselves. Codes do not correct corrupt practices or convert "chiselers" by coercion; only the spirit of brotherhood and cooperation will avail.

There is more potential energy in the spiritual lives of people living in democracy than our present religious status is able to translate into social good. Our churches can be criticized for lagging instead of leading in an organized attack upon entrenched evils, but social righteousness will be achieved only as individual lives are spiritualized—not otherwise. Enough power now runs to waste in jealousy, selfishness, and hatred to revolutionize the world if it were harnessed to the purposes of God-like living.

Even in our schools, prejudice is one of the most sinister elements in the life of America today and threatens to destroy the essential values of our religious and our educational patterns. With so many of us, the denominational or ecclesiastical sense is stronger and more sensitive than the ethical sense. We make slanted comments—or think them—about the Roman Catholics, the Jews, the Protestants. Our elementary moral judgments are governed by denominational prejudices. The effect on total personality is great. There must be an end to such a ridiculous temper, with a cleaning of the democratic conscience of man, a purification of judgment, and a recovery of honest vision. The spectacle of a divided church, for example, its members in some instances declining to pray together, yet exhorting the nations of the world to unite, is a heart-breaking anomaly. And no less are education and educators guilty of such feelings and actions.

In regard to prejudice of any kind, we must be as harsh as truth and as uncompromising as justice. In some schools in America in this year 1957, there are yet to be found certain dormitories, fraternities and classrooms that do not allow the admission of Negroes. Prejudice knows no boundaries, no church, no viewpoint. Democracy's offensive against it again affects the total personality of the individual pupil, wherever he may live. Prejudice is unfortunately a fashionable disease; but it fills the minds of those who suffer from it with suspicion and distrust, narrows the minds, contacts the sympathies, and is responsible for irrational behavior, even in our democracy that boasts of an educated public. It not only wastes the life of its victim, but also corrodes by contagion the lives of those who come under its influence.

The truly democratic condition of civil rights enhances the effective functioning of pupil's personality by its insistence on leadership, guidance, and help for those in need of such interest. If our democratic way of life is to appeal to the peoples of the world everywhere, we must secure for all time our civil rights to all in the schools. Congress should be prodded to action and made aware of the danger to our foreign policy in intolerance, in racial and religious discrimination, and in the failure of any section of our country to live up to the ideas of our Bill of Rights and the International Bill of Human Rights that we helped draw up for the peoples of the world in connection with our membership in the United Nations. Our age is unfortunately marked by an enormous increase in the source of various powers in government and industry useful for bullying peoples whether through mass communication, military force, or economic monopolies. It is as if people have forgotten that the only reason for the existence of states and governments is to help each of us to develop his intrinsic powers to the fullest extent in a free and educated community.

But so much depends on the advancement and spread of knowledge through education in our democracy if our form of society and way of life are to affect most advantageously the total personality in the pupils in our schools. Our children have certain basic rights—the right to the benefits of religious guidance and training; the right to a school program which offers sound academic training, plus maximum opportunity for individual development and preparation for living; the right to receive constructive discipline for the proper development of good character, conduct, and habits; the right to the affection and intelligent rearing with understanding by parents; the right to be secure in his or her community against all influences detrimental to proper and wholesome development. To be sure, total personality of our pupils in democracy will be influenced rightly if (1) the American education system is truly democratic in its organization and practices; (2) the schools and the community develop an interacting relationship of mutual value; and (3) personnel policies are improved in order to strengthen the educational profession and build a stronger morale among teachers.

I urge the schools to help close the gap between scientific advance and social retardation through sound convictional thinking and planning. Scientific benefits would then be extended to all the world as rapidly as possible. Schools must prepare individuals to create and live effectively in a cooperative interdependent society. The schools must teach pupils the meaning and techniques of working together. Schools should be called upon to extend the interest of people in international cooperation. Men must progress beyond mere knowledge and tolerance to that wisdom that combines intelligent understanding and appreciation of the cultural and social values held by others. The schools must help secure acceptance of the ideals of democracy in social, economic, and political arrangements through example, practice, and viewpoint.

A genuine, functioning democracy cannot come from wishful thinking on the part of educators; instead, it is the result of education and experience in democratic living. Schools on all levels must help develop values that will guide pupils toward high standards of moral conduct and ethical living, and must provide for the development of creative abilities and afford avenues for expression in constructive activities. The pupil, in terms of his personality, who has developed creative outlets and has achieved emotional stability in the schools of a democratic people, is more likely to react maturely to situations and to exhibit the qualities of democratic behavior.

Finally, the factor of peace is too significant to omit in our analysis. The problem of peace is the problem of making possible the peaceable and orderly readjustment of power relationship between states. This in turn is a problem not of mechanisms, but of values, attitudes, ideologies, sentiments, emotions, loyalties, and allegiances. Not "war," but the quest for petty power, the search for mere profits, the demand for an expanding empire must be renounced if peace is to be assured. Peoples of our world have yet to develop a patriotism which is not characterized by belligerency, national self-assertiveness, and all the attributes of primitive tribalism.

In the following ways, then, and through psychological and educational implementation will truly democratic conditions enhance the effective functioning of the total personality: by developing a true appreciation on the part of Americans of their heritage of freedom wrung from the struggle of centuries; by contrasting very concretely in our schools the philosophy and practices of democracy with those of dictatorship; by giving pupils a clear understanding of the essential elements of the democratic way of life; by giving students appreciation of the ethical and spiritual values, as well as the material benefits, of democracy as a way of life; and by giving boys and girls everywhere a vision of the possibilities of a future world of freedom, justice, and peace. These ideals of democracy, if psychologically encouraged to *live* and *grow* in our schools, would provide the elements of purposefulness, social interdependence, and challenge by which personality becomes effective.

NEWS FOR PHILATELISTS

Two new stamps in the United Nations series are to be issued on October 27—U. N. Day. Printed in 3-cent and 8-cent denominations, the stamps which honor the Security Council, show the UN emblem shedding light on the globe. They were designed by Rashid-ud Din, a Pakistani member of the UN Secretariat. Meanwhile, the UN Postal Administration has also announced that four of the regular issue stamps, originally printed in 1951, have been reprinted. The stamps are the regular 20- and 25-cent denominations, as well as the 12- and 25-cent airmail stamps. (UNESCO)

A School Library Materials Center

DOROTHEA I. GODFREE

THE October 1956 issue (pages 131-134) of THE BULLETIN included an article entitled, "The School Library" by Miss Helen R. Sattley. This is a very provocative article, but, in the writer's opinion, it does not explore the subject realistically. All librarians do not agree that Miss Sattley's arguments are the final words.

In the *American Library Association Bulletin* for February 1956, another point of view was presented in the article, "The School Library: A Material Center," co-authored by this writer. On page 81, the following statement appears, an endorsement based on happy experience with the materials-center: "The Port Washington Junior High School is fortunate to have a library that is truly a materials center, used extensively by teachers and pupils. . . . It works well and we like it. . . ." The philosophy behind such materials-center disagrees with Miss Staley's statement (That it) "may weaken to a critical degree any contribution they may be able to make to the schools."

Far from weakening the library program, the librarian who can present to his teachers *all* types of educational materials will strengthen it. A teacher today who has an over-crowded classroom, reports to fill out, meetings to attend, *etc.* certainly will be benefitted in his work by the library catalog and the librarian who can give him *all* his materials in one place. No longer must the teacher go to one place for books and to another for audio-visual materials, and still another for suitable charts, pictures, and pamphlets.

To be sure, librarians are harassed and over-worked, but, for that matter, who isn't today? Are we going to bury our heads in our hands and wail, "I am too busy, I can't do any more?" Or are we going to turn to and present a dynamic, live, and helpful program? This is not a one-man job. But there is no one better fitted to help supervise and integrate the audio-visual materials, books, and other supplementary curriculum materials than the librarian. His background and training adequately fit him directly into the niche. Let's present the actual program to our supervisors and convince them *by doing* that such a program is possible and educationally sound.

A dynamic librarian, while revering the timeless value of the printed word, faces reality. Books are no longer the sole source of information into today's world. Let no one call librarians "reactionaries." We must move with the times!

An administrator who can *see* what is being done is much more easily convinced that we are over-worked and will be much more ready to help us. Then a true working materials-center, adequately staffed and budgeted, will be more likely to come.

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How Important Are Certification Procedures?

THOMAS A. BRODIE, JR.

ONE of the proposals advanced for an alleviation of the shortage of qualified high-school teachers calls for a radical change of state certification requirements in that profession. Specifically, this revisionary suggestion entails the elimination, or at least sharp reduction, of state legal stipulations relating to "professional course work." By this is meant those college classes usually termed "education" in which prospective teachers are backgrounded in various instructional methods and concepts, as distinct from the subject matter they will teach.

For some time it has been the practice in virtually all states to prescribe such education courses for secondary-school teacher candidates. In fact, there is a trend, recently evident, to increase the number of these courses as a requisite for certification. Since they now seldom comprise less than about fifteen per cent of the total college credit load in a typical four-year program, some notion of the procedural, not to say philosophical, implications of the change may be grasped. Yet, however dissonant the idea appears alongside of accepted educationist theory, it clearly contemplates resolution of a human resources problem, important in socio-political as well as purely educational terms. Consequently, the plan merits as serious consideration by responsible school leadership as do others similarly directed.

There appear to be two basic assumptions underlying the proposal. Demonstration or concession of either would probably go a long way, in some judgments, toward justifying certification revisions of the type requested. These premises may be stated as follows:

1. That considerable numbers of college graduates, otherwise well-qualified, are deterred from entering teaching ranks because of an unwillingness or inability to take requisite "professional" courses.

2. That the professional courses normally required for certification are generally of little practical value in teaching, being largely vacuous and working chiefly to diminish the more capable students' interest in the field as a whole.

Even a cursory examination of these assumptions suggests marked interrelatedness. Certainly, to the extent there is validity in the first, it is to some extent an outgrowth of whatever factual basis is found or presumably exists in the second. Thus, their total significance can probably be considered without particular reference to the two-fold distinction with which they were set forth.

Thomas A. Brodie, Jr., is Guidance Counselor at Central High School in St. Paul, Minnesota.

There is no doubt but that some college graduates, with satisfactory or perhaps even outstanding academic records, have sought and been denied teaching eligibility because they lacked "professional" training. But, it is also true that most states have provided for the issuance of provisional certificates to persons, otherwise qualified, who have indicated an intention of eventually satisfying regular professional standards through additional college course-work. Usually, they are given liberal specified time in which to do this. Throughout the nation a considerable number of these individuals are availing themselves of this opportunity to gain complete legal status as teachers, while they concurrently fill vital instructional vacancies.

Where college graduates have adamantly refused to "submit" to education courses despite an avowal of the desire to teach, one might well raise serious questions concerning their psychological fitness for the job. The "inconvenience" or "lack of stimulation" which they allege, while possibly factual, hardly supports any inference of keen teaching motivation when its chief use seems to be rationalization of non-conformity. Normally, persons who find themselves strongly impelled toward a vocational objective, are able to accept what they interpret as unpleasant obstacles, in stride. Those who do not, conceivably, lack some of the ardor and transcendent perspective appropriate to success in their work.

Some who dissent because of what they see as the "non-utilitarian" nature of education courses overlook the comparable though generally tolerated inconveniences of other professions. Many lawyers and physicians, for example, are doubtless unable to perceive relationships of immediate and practical value between much of their formal collegiate preparation and the kinds of practice in which they find themselves engaged. Still, there is no agitation to abandon specific professional training for these groups, either from the professions themselves or laity. On the contrary, aspirants, however gifted or demonstrably competent, who do not satisfy legal requirements for admission to these practices, are absolutely barred.

Argumentation against education course requirements, through the contention that "success in the field" is the only justifiable criterion for certification finds little supportive precedent in other professions. One is reminded of a recent case where an amazingly competent, yet bogus, surgeon performed an especially intricate piece of chest surgery under adverse conditions. He did this sufficiently well to secure the commendation of a medical journal. Yet, when his impersonation was discovered, there was no responsible group urging his continuance in medical and surgical practice on the grounds that he had proved himself in the field.

Teachers certainly have as much right to professional identification as do physicians, dentists, lawyers, and engineers. Where the process through which this takes place, *i.e.*, the certificate qualifying procedure, is deficient, the initial reaction would more appropriately be a construc-

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tive examination of the procedure than its abandonment. Such imperfections as do exist, however, in no way negate the essential value of seeking a legitimately unique and professional status for the secondary-school instructor. This would still appear most effectively accomplished through a special and, hopefully, a selective training program, whatever its composition or characteristics.

It seems quite clear that the particular shortcomings which are found in teacher preparatory sequences are primarily of an implemental rather than a conceptual nature. There should be little difficulty in making a strong theoretical justification for courses in "practice teaching" or "psychology of learning." Studies in developmental psychology and the nature of intelligence clearly have pedagogical significance and should enjoy complete academic respectability as well. Who would quarrel, for example, with a course in "individual differences" strongly buttressed with the contributions of researchers like Gesell and Terman?

Unfortunately, there has been a tendency in too many colleges to expand education classes *ad infinitum*, which has necessarily resulted in their dilution. Now, there is sufficient valuable content, of the aforementioned type, available through relevant psychological and pedagogical research to support normal collegiate offerings. It does not, however, justify the embarrassing multiplicity of redundant and trivial courses, characterizing some institutions, which invite the derision of academicians and laymen alike. It is likely this factor, more than any other, which has caused teacher training to fall into disrepute on some campuses.

Universities and colleges preparing teachers have a responsibility to review systematically their training program with the point of assuring optimal function. They also have an obligation to screen candidates both academically and psychologically to guarantee, insofar as possible, that suitable personnel are being qualified for the profession. Teacher effectiveness is, of course, the fundamental criterion by which the schools, themselves, are evaluated.

The problem of preparing and retaining good teachers is both pressing and complex. It will almost become more so in the years immediately ahead. However, its solution does not lie in the direction of negative and revolutionary measures even when these are presented as being particularly sophisticated. For more likely, success can be achieved through objective and conscientious efforts to improve and utilize the machinery presently designed for that purpose.

The Book Column

Professional Books

AYARS, A. L. *Administering the People's Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. 370 pp. \$5.50. Here is a source of suggestions covering not only the ingredients of sound, long-range educational planning in successful school administration, but also the specific information needed in routine day-to-day tasks. This book interrelates administration, supervision, curriculum, and instruction, making clear the responsibilities of the superintendent in each. In this respect the book enables the administrator to see the *total task*, rather than treating his responsibilities in compartments.

The material is based on the author's own experience as a school administrator, plus the expressed needs and experiences of nearly 100 school administrators who were members of his classes in school administration at the State College of Washington in three recent summer sessions. Various aspects (such as running for office, dealing with the school board, buying supplies, planning buildings, administering curricular services, etc.), are interrelated to the total tasks and purpose of school administration.

Illustrative topics of timely interest include: merit rating, academic freedom, industry cooperation, programs for talented youth, foreign language in elementary schools, shortage of trained manpower, advisory committees, and shortage of facilities. Other special topics covered are: reports of successful experiences in group curriculum planning, utilizing teacher helpers, classroom lunch programs, instructional use of community resources, and the broad area of public relations. An extensive bibliography follows each chapter.

BRADFIELD, J. M., and H. S. MOREDOCK. *Measurement and Evaluation in Education*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1957. 523 pp. \$5.50. The concern of this book is what teachers, principals, supervisors, and other educational specialists need to know and do if they are to deal efficiently with measurement and evaluation. Among such items of essential knowledge and performance are thought to be the following: (1) the basic concepts of measurement and evaluation that underlie valid practice; (2) the technical terminology involved; (3) phenomena that may deserve measurement and their measurable dimensions; (4) the nature of measurement symbols involving the many procedures of measurement useful in the schools and certain statistical ideas and operations important for proper interpretation and use of test results; (5) standards appropriate to evaluating pupil achievement and efficient ways of reporting evaluations to pupils and parents; (6) how all these things apply to a teacher's specialization as to subject, grade, function, etc.

The treatment of these matters is based on a given rationale of measurement and evaluation and is intentionally developmental and analytic in character. Passages and chapters are interrelated and interdependent. Definitions and principles developed in one chapter are applied in subsequent ones. The first section deals with basic concepts, terminology, and the general features of dimensions, symbols, procedures, statistics, standards, marking, and reporting. In the second section these concepts are applied to school subjects, to intelligence, and to character and personality variables.

There are several exercises in each chapter designed to help apply the principles and procedures discussed. The bibliography at the end of each chapter indicates the readings that have contributed to the ideas and techniques presented in the chapter, including specific references. Where additional reading seems advisable, appropriate titles are indicated in the text.

The appendix contains an extensive glossary of terms that have technical significance either in this text or in measurement and evaluation generally. Also in the appendix are sample report cards and an annotated bibliography of published tests in all areas. The bibliography should be helpful in selecting tests for study and for use. Finally, the book is concluded by two statistical tables. The table of normal curve area- z score relationships will be helpful in interpreting the confidence limits of various measurements. The other table compares graphically the several types of norm scores used in standardized tests.

DEHAAN, R. F., and R. J. HAVIGHURST. *Educating Gifted Children*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press. 1957. 286 pp. \$5. Gifted children—an important but often undereducated group of children—are the focus of this new study. Two leading authorities in the field of education discuss the philosophical and theoretical purposes and aims of education for the gifted and spell out in detail how the general principles can be applied in the community, school, and classroom.

In order to establish a firm groundwork for the practical aspects of their subject, the authors deal first with the broad social implications involved. Prime among their considerations are the attitudes of the American public toward the specialized education of gifted children—an ambiguous attitude which both favors it and frowns upon it—and the place of this form of education in the context of American education as a whole.

Practical programs are given for both primary and secondary schools for identifying gifted children through tests and observations, for developing the gifted through enrichment of curriculum within the classroom, through special grouping for broader or more advanced work, and through acceleration. Many programs are outlined, and reports of actual procedures and results. Enrichment programs outside the classroom are discussed; community resources are suggested; case histories are drawn from programs in action. These practical aspects of the issue are discussed in relation to the obligations of all who are responsible for the education of the gifted child: the parents, community workers, administrators, and teachers.

The final section of the book deals with those problems in the education of gifted youth which have not as yet received the attention they deserve. Chief among these are problems of motivation, personality development of the gifted, and the development of creativity.

HOPPOCK, ROBERT. *Occupational Information*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. 544 pp. \$6.75. This book covers three aspects of the subject: where to get occupational information; how to use it in counseling; and how to use it in teaching. It contains a comprehensive analysis of what 48 other authorities say about 22 uses of occupational information in counseling and discusses how 15 different kinds of occupational information may affect the client's vocational choice and job satisfaction.

The first six chapters identify the kinds of occupational information that counselors and clients need and suggest where to get it and how to appraise, classify, and file it. The following group of chapters discuss basic theories of

occupational information in counseling. Subsequent chapters consider the principles and methods of teaching occupations and describe a variety of ways in which occupational information may be presented to groups of all kinds. Several of the recommended procedures involve active audience participation in compiling, from primary sources, the information which members of the group need and want.

A separate chapter reviews the place of occupational information in the elementary school. Review questions follow each chapter and a bibliography includes 392 sources of further information. Among the several appendixes is one which records a brief history of the teaching of occupations and two that offer suggested plans, assignments, and term projects for the convenience of the instructor who is teaching occupational information for the first time.

KNAPP, CLYDE, and A. E. JEWETT. *Physical Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. \$4.75. Written for student teachers, beginning teachers, supervisors and administrators, this book will help young teachers anticipate, understand, and solve the problems which will confront them. Part One presents the scope of the teaching responsibility and discusses the necessary preparation. It describes characteristics of the work to be done and the opportunities and the problems which the prospective physical-education teacher may anticipate.

Starting with an overview of student teaching, the second section then proceeds to the development of ability to understand school and community, observe skillfully, teach classes, lead extraclass activities, and evaluate teaching. The last part of the book discusses finding a job, makes suggestions for approaching a new position, deals with the problems of preparing for first teaching experiences, and suggests means of building a sound foundation for a lifetime career.

The emphasis throughout is on the *whole job* of teaching physical education; the treatment is practical, with a sound theoretical background. Special topics and material include: sample units and lesson plans, observation guides, and special problems facing beginning teachers.

KRAUS, RICHARD. *Play Activities for Boys and Girls*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. 248 pp. \$4.95. Recreation leaders, teachers, and parents will find in this book a wealth of practical guidance for constructive recreational activities for children from six to twelve. Active and inactive games, musical play and singing, dancing (folk and creative), dramatics, hobbies, arts and crafts, family fun, and more are all described in an easy-to-understand way in this guide to play activities. Instructions are clear and simple. The author points out the importance of play for the child in this age group, shows the need for intelligent adult guidance, and then displays a wealth of play material that will aid both professional and volunteer adult leaders.

Classroom teachers will find new approaches to both traditional games and activities, and the field of creative expression. Volunteer leaders of scout troops, church, playground, or camping groups and parents will find this book a readable and useful guide, whether their need is for planning a single "fun" session or a continuing program of activities.

LOWENFELD, VIKTOR. *Creative and Mental Growth*, third edition. New York 11: Macmillan Company. 1957. 565 pp. \$5.90. This book is written for art teachers—teachers who teach art, kindergarten teachers, and all who not only want to appreciate the creative production of children merely from an

aesthetic viewpoint, but also would like to look behind the doors to see the sources from which their creative activity springs. Since such an investigation necessarily cannot deal only with the analysis of individual expressions but must also be concerned with general findings, much of the discussion on the quality of the single child's work has been sacrificed to questions of general importance. Only through the understanding of these basic questions will the teacher arrive at the proper stimulation of the child during the different developmental stages. This book is an outcome of the study of many thousands of creative works over a period of more than twenty years. It tries to introduce methods which are results of the child's needs, and are, therefore, flexible. It attempts to give any teacher, not only art teachers, an understanding of the psychology necessary for the understanding of the child's creative production.

MacCONNELL, J. A. *Planning for School Buildings*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 360 pp. \$6.95. This book discusses school planning problems and their solutions, skilled and lay personnel involved in the planning, timing of the planning, organizational patterns of programming, and economics in school building. This book, the culmination of many years of experience of the author in this area, will serve as a guide for school personnel and school board members, architects, engineers, and others involved in the planning of school buildings. Planning and building a school today is a very complex undertaking. Changes that have taken place and are taking place cannot be taken care of in the stereotyped school plant of yesterday. Creative education, that will satisfactorily care for the widely varied needs of today's pupil enrolment, demands that the school plant exceed convention.

The author emphasizes the necessity for smooth efficient team work if a functional school plant is to result. He gives attention to techniques and procedures for organizing lay, educational, and technical groups to be involved in planning and building the school plant. He discusses the competencies needed for optimum performance and cites examples of results obtained in a variety of situations in which careful group planning was followed. He discusses problems presented by the educational team members under the guidance of the school administrators, and the solutions achieved in working cooperatively with the technical team headed by the architect. He believes that the well conceived, well-constructed school plant will create an environment conducive to the successful performance of the most important task of the schools—the education of the children and youth of America.

MOEHLMAN, A. B., and J. A. Van ZWOLL. *School Public Relations*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1957. 570 pp. \$6. The depression of the 1930's awakened the schools to the desperate straits into which they had been plunged. They could no longer avoid the problems of a poorly balanced tax system, archaic administrative organization, and widespread misunderstanding or ignorance about the schools. No longer did the trial-and-error methods and doctrine of expediency of the preceding era produce results. Out of the needs of the dark depression days arose a comprehensive concept of interpretation. With a new approach generated out of the combined perspective afforded by the 1920's and 1930's, Moehlman wrote *Social Interpretation*, published in 1938, as an expression of the public relations activity which was basic and complementary to all institutional planning, progress, and continued existence.

After World War II, the United States entered upon a period of economic prosperity and high productivity. However, the public schools soon found themselves facing the greatest test yet of their ability to develop in accordance

with social need and with the necessary moral and financial support of the people. Needs were multiplied; physical facilities were debilitated. Some were obsolete; others were in sad disrepair because of the economies of the depression, compounded by higher priorities of military necessities during the war years. Also, the great upsurge in births, together with population migrations, created the need for additional facilities, teachers, supplies, and the money to finance all these. Urgency brought into play again a considerable leaning toward the opportunistic and the expedient. Still, the experiences of the years since 1927 had left their mark upon school personnel. A great consciousness of the need and potentialities of public relations activities replaced the previous, somewhat scornful attitude.

This book represents a third phase in the development of the interpretive concept. Written primarily for the practicing school administrator and for graduate students in education, it translates the concept into present-day realities. The ideas embodied in it flow out of the set of principles that are the logical product of the point of view developed in the introductory chapters. Also, recognized throughout is the fact that the problems facing the schools will vary from one district to another, that there are probably no two situations so alike that the answer in one situation will fit the other. It is for this reason that the attempt has been made to develop the discussion of basic tenets, means, and agencies in such a way as to encourage a public relations approach which is most suitable to each situation. It is hoped that careful study of the principals advocated and their projection into interpretive activities will produce increased social understanding and appreciation of the educational function among both school personnel and the general public.

The book is divided into five major sections or parts: General Orientation and a Point of View; Factors Basic to School Public Relations; State and Local Educational Agencies and Agents; Institutional and Community Agencies; and Recapitulation. It is also further divided into 24 chapters.

MORT, P. R., and D. H. ROSS. *Principles of School Administration*, second edition. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. 467 pp. \$6. Generally regarded as a classic in the professional literature of education, this work is dominated by a commonsense approach based on integration of knowledges and skills that will enable the administrator to face new problems confidently. Although the book is fundamentally organized in terms of *criteria for judgment*, the authors include wide reference to the problems and subject matter of school administration.

The book covers a system of cultural sanctions or values generally held in our civilization. Illustrations showing the pertinence of these values in meeting administrative problems make up the bulk of each chapter. In addition, there are several descriptive chapters on the structure of state and local school systems and organizational suggestions. Also included are sections dealing with educational purpose; psychological, sociological, and technological conditioners of educational purpose; legal theory; and guides to the evaluation of empirical information.

RICHARDSON, J. S. *Science Teaching in Secondary Schools*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 399 pp. \$6.50. Our society is in the process of developing scientific ways of thinking and acting; it is enjoying the material benefits of the applications of science to our problems. Progress in developing critical thinking is seemingly slow, but the development of material benefits is re-emphasized each day with new products and applications of our technology.

As ignorance, prejudice, and superstition encounter enlightenment and critical thought, conflicts occur; as the products of advancing technology change our patterns of living, other conflicts occur. The resolution of such conflicts is brought about most satisfactorily through planned educational processes.

But at the same time, learning develops new conflicts, for it moves us always to new intellectual horizons and, through our technology, to new controls of our environment. The process of learning thus becomes critical in our society, and teaching becomes a critical factor. Those who have competence in science and responsibility for science in the school curriculum face problems that transcend the transmittal of content. They must be concerned with the social and economic implications of science and technology. They must carry the responsibility for the advancement of science in all its direction through their teaching. Most critical of all, they must stimulate and nurture the creative intellect. Those who are or will be science teachers or are otherwise concerned with science in our schools face such a pyramid of responsibility. To them this volume is directed.

SPEARS, HAROLD. *Curriculum Planning Through In-Service Programs*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 364 pp. \$4.50. One of the fastest-growing movements in American education today is the in-service study program for training teachers and staff members. In their persistent search for ways and means of improving the quality of classroom instruction, more and more schools are adopting some form of on-the-job training of teachers.

To demonstrate how the in-service plan operates, and what it accomplishes, the author reports on some 25 typical programs he has observed in school systems across the country. No attempt is made to single out the "best" examples, or to fit the in-service movement into any particular philosophic mold. This book simply describes common practices and invites the reader to form his own judgments.

As the author points out, in-service training has to a great extent merged with an enlarged upon curriculum planning. Whereas the latter seeks only to upgrade the instructional program proper, in-service plans go beyond that by giving the teacher an opportunity to "grow on the job." To indicate various paths toward this goal, the author explains at length how the schools under scrutiny here have organized their programs and developed certain statements and materials which have proven highly successful.

STOUT, VICTOR. *A Reference Guide for Public School Evaluation*. Portales, New Mexico: Eastern New Mexico University Book Store. 1957. 103 pp. 34-page appendix. \$2. 65, delivered. The book analyzes and presents, in logical and sequential form, the specific problems common to all evaluation programs. Under each of these problems, or topics, are presented suggestions, methods, and materials appropriate to the solution of the problem.

STRANG, RUTH, and D. K. BRACKEN. *Making Better Readers*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath and Company. 1957. 384 pp. \$4.25. This book was designed to help prospective teachers and teachers-in-service to understand reading development and ways of furthering it, and to help every member of the school staff to see more clearly his responsibility as part of the total reading program. The book should be useful not only in introducing the field of reading to teachers, administrators, and guidance workers, but also in giving them concrete, practical suggestions to apply in their own classrooms and schools. It will also serve as an orientation, introduction, and supplement to the more comprehensive and technical books on reading already available.

To meet these needs, the book has been planned as follows: first, to describe the development of reading and major methods of teaching reading in the elementary school. This is valuable to persons in junior and senior high school, not only in giving a genetic approach to the reading development and problems during adolescent years, but also in acquainting them with procedures that may be used in modified form with high-school students having difficulty with reading.

Since, under present school conditions, there is a wide range of reading ability represented in our junior and senior high schools, a description of this diversity of reading interest and ability and how to deal with it is given in Chapter 2. Here the special reading problems of the gifted, the student who can read better, and the slow learner are considered.

Despite the diversity of reading ability, there are certain common reading abilities which should be taught. How to provide for reading development and personal development through reading during high-school years is treated in Chapter 3. In this chapter basic reading skills and methods of teaching them are described.

Since reading is everybody's business, it is necessary to describe some of the common opportunities and responsibilities of the whole school staff. These responsibilities have been translated in Chapter 4 into concrete procedures for understanding the individual student, giving instruction in reading while teaching any subject, and providing other language arts experiences.

There are, however, special approaches, a special vocabulary, and special procedures for teaching reading in each subject. Although the English teacher has usually assumed major responsibility for the language arts, there is much that the teacher of every subject can do. In Chapter 5 this is described with many illustrations of classroom procedure.

Even though every teacher has become a teacher of reading of his subject, there are still some individual students who cannot read well enough to profit by regular classroom instruction. For these individuals, special reading groups and clinical facilities should be made available. These are described in Chapter 6, which emphasizes the training value of teachers to clinic work with small groups and individuals, as well as the benefit to the limited number of clients served in the clinic.

To supplement the references to methods and instructional materials, given in each chapter, additional lists of books for teachers and students, audio-visual aids, and standardized tests are given in the Appendix. A special feature of this book is the illustrations, each selected to emphasize a point of major importance. The busy teacher will be likely to read the book selectively, getting a general impression from thoughtful skimming and coming back again and again to parts that meet his immediate needs.

SWAIN, R. L. *Understanding Arithmetic*. New York 16: Rinehart and Company, Inc. 1957. 288 pp. \$4.75. The author aims to aid the reader to comprehend the why of the arithmetical processes. He gives the reader some opportunity to appreciate the human setting of the subject, its relationship to man and society. Though useful to a broad class of readers, the book is addressed particularly to the future teachers of arithmetic in the elementary and secondary grades.

Chapter 11, "Using Units," provides some background for understanding mathematical application. On the whole, however, the book deals with the principal topics of "pure" rather than "applied" arithmetic. It is the subject matter

of pure arithmetic, viewed in historical perspective and rendered both logical and meaningful, which is essential for the teacher, at all grade levels. Certain additional applied and analytical topics are important for the teacher of the upper grades: ratio and proportion, formulas and equations, functions, graphs, informal geometry and mensuration, consumer and business arithmetic, probability and statistics. These topics demand emphasis upon manipulation and "problem solving." They also represent a mathematical area important for everyone's "general education." Whether future teacher or businessman or housewife, a student ought to have acquired proficiency in that area quite early, in high school or in his freshman college year.

For the most part, the material of the first nine chapters is sequentially arranged. Some sections and their problem sets are starred (*), indicating that they may be omitted without loss of continuity. (Individual problems of more than average difficulty are also starred.) Chapters 10, 11, and 12 are largely independent of each other.

Certain text matter is printed in small type. This includes supplementary material regarded as less important than that of the main text, also various explanatory and illustrative side comments, as well as some material of more than average technical difficulty.

Conceptual understanding is not easily won. In treating arithmetic on a mature level, the author has probed deeply enough into the subject to challenge the mind of the intelligent reader or the better student. Some material is new; for example, the treatment of "accuracy" in section 10-11 of Chapter 12. Some material is drawn from areas of mathematics usually classified as "advanced." The author has zealously labored to adapt this material and to present it as simply as it is in his power to do, so that it may be mastered by those whose mathematical background is weak. Technical terminology and notation have been held to a minimum. Terms loved only by pedants, like "minuend" and "involution," have been avoided. A few short abstract proofs have been included. In most cases, however, it has been found possible to convey the essential ideas behind the proof procedures by suitably arranged numerical demonstrations.

Thomas Alva Edison Foundation Institute. *Strengthening Science Education for Youth and Industry*. New York 3: New York University Press. 1957. 172 pp. (8½" x 11"). \$5. This volume is the record of two days of exchange information and opinion on this vital social problem. This country is constantly reminded how far short of our needs is the supply of scientists and engineers. Each day some new advance is made that outdates what we have been taught, and creates new facts to be taught. In this situation where everyone must be a student, some jobs are going unfilled, and some jobs are not even getting started. The problem of maintaining our technological progress is not reducible to one of graduating numbers of scientists and engineers.

The responsibility for strengthening science education rests on many shoulders: the home, industry, the school. On November 19 and 20, 1956, the Edison Foundation was host to a distinguished group of educators, industrialists, and government personnel who discussed these responsibilities: what seems to work, what looks fruitful, and what is worth trying. Discussions of this kind must be carried on continually for we cannot afford the price of failing to strengthen science education.

VREDEVOE, L. E. *An Introduction and Outline of Secondary Education*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: J. W. Edwards, Publisher, Inc. 1957. 176 pp. \$2.75. This book is designed to give the maximum background and data pertaining

to secondary education (grades 7-14) in the minimum number of pages. The history, purposes, organization, philosophies, curricula, students, teachers, principles, problems, activities, guidance, professional associations, programs in other countries, and committees and commissions, recommendations are some of the topics succinctly reviewed in this publication. It represents an attempt to bring together the significant materials, data, and reports in a condensed form. The materials are arranged so that a student can quickly find a date, school, report of an important committee or commission, definition, or other significant information. Indications where additional information can be found are given for most of the topics covered. It is not assumed that this introduction and outline will be considered as a complete reference, but rather as a stimulus for further study.

WARNER, R. H. *The Child and His Elementary School World*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 416 pp. \$4.95. The author takes one into the classroom to observe current practices in all key areas of the curriculum, including language arts, social studies, music, science, arithmetic, health, and fine arts. Treating each area in turn, she demonstrates how these practices evoke positive mental and emotional responses which enable the child to gain self-identity and instill in him a genuine desire to learn. And to underscore her main points, the author includes illustrations of youngsters in various learning situations.

The author's sensitive feeling for children—her insight into their motivations and behavior—gives her book a sincerity that will impress educators and laymen alike. She does not, of course, discount the school's responsibility for teaching the basic skills of literacy; but she considers it imperative to create in the child's mind an image of himself as a person of free spirit, dignity, and intrinsic worth. Once the child sees himself in this light, he not only learns more rapidly—and retains more of what he learns—but is also well on the way toward becoming a happy, well-adjusted citizen in a free society.

By mapping out specific ways and means for accomplishing this end, the author renders a real service to elementary education. Amid the general dispute over methods and objectives, hers is a voice of calm reason weighted with authority. She is concerned only with the child in his school world, his needs, and how to best satisfy those needs.

WESLEY, E. B. *NEA: The First Hundred Years*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers, Inc. 1957. 419 pp. \$5. Colorful, graphic, human but scholarly is the author's story of how the National Teachers' Association came to be the great National Education Association of today. This book is more than an account of how the organized teaching profession in America grew from its first meeting of 43 people in 1857 to enroll a majority of the teachers of the nation a century later. It is the story of the NEA's century-long preoccupation with the problems of the nation's schools—a preoccupation which has absorbed it over the years, even at times when its numerical strength was almost ludicrously disproportionate to the dignity it showed in its earnestness. It is a sympathetic report of the bitter struggles and debates over what the mission of our schools should be. The schools and the NEA are so intertwined in the author's story that it becomes a history of American education as seen through the personalities of the men and women who have served the association.

Both educators and laymen who read the author's account will get a new understanding of the American teaching profession and the nation's schools. No reader can escape the drama which moves through the book. The author

deals incisively and directly, in language clear even for those unacquainted with the jargon of pedagogy, with the great issues which determine the character of American education. Epigrammatic in his treatments, he nevertheless avoids over-simplifications. He points out how both large and small forces have combined in determining the directions our schools have taken.

The author is no bouquet tosser; his book is no panegyric of NEA nor collection of eulogies of NEA heroes. Nevertheless, the reader gets a sense of a heroic drama that is bigger than personalities or the organization itself—of a great combine of human beings, earnestly wrong at times, but yet earnestly right even more. It is the story of the great part the NEA has had in building an educational system that, though imperfect, is indigenously American in the values it supports.

Books for Pupil-Teacher Use

ALCOTT, L. A. *Jo's Boys*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1957. 342 pp. \$1.75. The author wrote this book for children all over the world who wanted to know "what became of" the boys and girls whom they knew and loved in *Little Men*. Here is Plumfield again with its memories of Aunt March, of pillow fights and the little cook stove, of the dozen rebellious boys who made life in the old house joy and chaos for so many years. Plumfield, quiet and prosperous now in the shade of beautiful Laurence College, and Aunt Jo, wise and warm and still fun-loving, are the havens to which the wanderers return to share their happiness or to find counsel and comfort when things go wrong. Music-loving Nat; jovial Emil; capable Nan; Rob and young Teddy; the irrepressible Tommy Bangs; Dan, the beloved "black sheep," quiet Daisy—all the cherished characters appear once more, for the last time, as they make the ultimate decisions about their lives and set forth from their old home into the wider world.

BAUR, J. I. H., editor. *New Art In America*. Greenwich, Conn.: New York Graphic Society, 95 E. Putman Ave. 1957. 284 pp. (9" x 12"). \$22.50. The publication is an event all lovers of art will hail with enthusiasm. It is not only a beautiful volume to be cherished for its wealth of faithful reproductions in full color, but also a new appraisal of American art. Five distinguished authorities on modern art working together as a Committee of Selection have chosen "the fifty painters who did the most to form American art in the twentieth century." It provides the basis for an objective and critical survey that is as stimulating as it is rewarding.

The half-century (and more) of United States art covered by the book is divided into three chronological periods—New Discoveries, 1900-1920; The Native Scene, 1920-1940; and The Widening Search, 1940-1955. Each artist, selected for his contributions to a period or style, is represented by three to six illustrations of his work, one of which appears as a full page in color. A biography of each artist, together with illuminating comment and critical analysis, is supplied by the five co-authors, each taking ten artists for special study. In many cases the artist himself describes his aims, methods, and convictions expressly for readers of this book.

As editor and chairman of the Selection Committee, Mr. Baur has written an introduction covering the first half of the twentieth century, and separate prefaces for each of the three chronological periods. His discussions of modern and traditional art in America provide an understanding for the layman and professional of all major schools and trends, past and present. A selected bibliography suggests further reading on each of the artists covered.

This volume on American art is a superb picture book which surveys the high peaks of this country's most creative era in painting—a period marked by extraordinary vitality and by a diversity that ranges from traditional art forms to the most advanced. At the same time, it is more than a picture book. The knowledge, the wide experience and insight of the five authors join to create a stimulating text that is always compact, readable, and full of illuminating comments. In the authors' treatment of each artist, they have written impersonally and with proper perspective on the salient facts of individual styles, development, and relationship to contemporary painters.

Printed entirely in offset lithography, with two black plates used for the black and white illustrations and six color processes for the color plates interspersed in the text, this book has taken two years to print. As a result, the publisher has produced a volume of much-needed information, whose durability and beauty of design, and accuracy and non-partisanship of written contents will become a major contribution to the understanding and appreciation of the art of these times and a standard, irreplaceable reference work on the subject for many years to come.

BEIM, JERROLD. *Trouble After School*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1957. 128 pp. \$2.75. When Lee Emerson's mother decided to help with the family's finances by taking a job, Lee somehow felt more responsible and grown up. Mom and Dad didn't need to worry about him. After all, he was in the eighth grade and could take care of himself after school. But things didn't work out as he had planned. He began spending more and more time with Terry Mason, a tough boy, and his gang. His grades slipped, and eventually, when the gang planned to wreck a new high-school recreation center in a reconverted barn because they weren't allowed to use it, Lee was faced with the biggest problem of his life. Could he break away from the gang without seeming disloyal or a sissy? Had he the courage to speak out as an individual?

BELL, M. E. *Daughter of Wolf House*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1957. 219 pp. \$2.95. Between the beach and the forest straggled the little Alaskan Indian village, dominated by the totems of its two clans, the wolf and the killer whale. Nakatla, who belonged to Wolf House, was the granddaughter of its chief, but her father had been a young sea captain rescued by her people when his ship was wrecked on the rock coast. And now, when she was on the verge of womanhood, another foreigner had come—a trader who built a store, and a home for his family.

This is first of all the story of Nakatla and the trader's son, but it is also the story of how the challenge of the newcomers was met. To the shaman of Killerwhale House, who hated them, their coming meant disaster. To the wise old chief of Wolf House, it pointed the way to a better life.

BLUE, WALLACE. *The Mouse-Gray Stallion*. Indianapolis 7: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc. 1957. 142 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of Pete McCune and the Maltese Mouse. Pete's father owns the Double Circle ranch, in Montana Territory, where much of the land is still open range, in the public domain. At twelve, Pete feels he is old enough to be a real cowhand. It seems to take a long time to grow to man-size on a ranch where everyone else is grown.

From Butter Jorgensen, top hand on the Double Circle, Pete first hears of the mouse-gray stallion. Butter rides in to report that a band of wild horses from the open range is running cattle off the best grazing land. The mustangs have made themselves at home around the Double Circle's best water hole.

"Wait till you see one smart stallion leads dem cayuses," he tells Pete. "Ugly little gray devil—quiet like a mouse, quick like a cat."

Abe McCune promptly sends his son and Butter Jorgensen out to trail the wild horses. He wants to know where they have entered his land and whether someone has shown them the way. Pete thinks only of capturing some of the mustangs. He is eager to show his father that he is a good judge of horseflesh. He knows his father suspects him of hankering for looks more than use in a horse.

Pete gets his chance to judge when they come upon the wild horses. He sees the big black stallion who is apparently leading the herd. The Ebony Whip, as Pete privately names the beautiful black, has a proud head and flashing hoofs. His movements are marked by a fire and spirit that make Pete catch his breath. This is the horse he wants!

And then, silhouetted against the sinking sun's last orange light, Pete sees the mouse-gray stallion, guarding the herd. A small gray horse that stands without motion and without distinction, calmly studying the boy. The horse is gray, all right. As gray as a Maltese cat the ranch cook once owned. His tail is the small rattail of the Indian Appaloosa pony. His head is small and pointed, and his ears are short and wide. He looks more like a mouse. Pete thinks. The Maltese Mouse! Pete tries the name over to himself, likes it, and keeps it.

BRYANT, BERNICE. *Future Perfect*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc. 1957. 250 pp. \$2.95. This book gives you the why's and wherefore's of dozens of questions about personality—and the answers. It tells you how to be one of the outstanding girls—the girl you wish you were—who's never shy or ill at ease, who always knows the right thing to do, the girl who's popular with everyone. It tells you how to make the very most of all the physical, mental, and moral attributes which, added together, are your "personality."

Since that is measured by the way you look and act, this book is designed to help you look and act your best at all times. With amusing case histories and encouraging suggestions, it deals with matters of physical care and good grooming, appropriate clothes and their care. It gives simple rules for "good manners"—at table, at home, at school, at parties, and in all public places. The etiquette of introductions, of writing various kinds of letters, and of successful party-giving is included. The art of getting along with girls and with boys, of enjoying your first date unself-consciously—these are all things which will reflect your personality.

CASTLE, JOHN. *The Password Is Courage*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1957. 190 pp. 35c. This is the story of Charlie Coward who was heroic even when alone, and over a hopelessly long period of time. Coward was a Cockney sergeant-major who fought a solo war against the Germans from behind their lines. He escaped seven times, but his incredible achievements came after he decided to remain where he was. Completely on his own, he set up a one-man intelligence system which sent out the first word of the V-1 bombs. He smuggled dynamite and guns to the Auschwitz Jews serving out their last days as slave laborers and saved hundreds from the gas chamber by substituting dead bodies for live. He committed innumerable acts of ingenious and devastating sabotage, and he did it on his own initiative and always with death as the most likely outcome.

CAVANNA, BETTY. *Angel on Skis*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1957. 255 pp. \$2.95. Angela gazed down at the powdery new snow with a rising sense of anticipation. Frost had turned its surface into crystals that glittered in the sun like sequins. She knew exactly the light swishing sound her skis would make as they lifted it in a sparkling cloud. This was her world—a white world of snow and speed and excitement. But to enter it, Angela had traveled a hard road.

When her mother moved to Vermont to support the family by running a guesthouse for skiers, Angela knew there wasn't a penny to spare for buying skis. But that did not lessen her almost fanatic determination to learn to ski. How she really did learn is a major theme of this novel. Because the author is intimately acquainted with skiing techniques, it is completely authentic. Because she knows so well how to re-create the breathless wonder of the ski slopes, it is enchanting. But that is not all; her story is warm with the glow of happy family life, and shining with romance; for the ski trails lead Angela to the glory of first love.

CHUTE, B. J. *The Blue Cup*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. 1957. 221 pp. \$3.50. The author of *Greenwillow* has selected her twelve favorite short stories for this new book. And since this is the first collection of her short fiction, it is something of an event. Originally published in such magazines as *The Saturday Evening Post*, *Good Housekeeping*, *Collier's*, *The Woman's Home Companion*, and *Woman's Day*, the stories have been arranged according to subject so that four belong to childhood, four to the "in-between" years, and four to the "older ones." Each story, however, was written to be read and enjoyed for its own sake.

COLMAN, HILA. *The Big Step*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1957. 192 pp. \$2.95. Debby's childhood had been a lonely one: her father died when she was a baby, and her mother had to go to work. Then her mother married Kenneth Milford, a widower, and at last Debby had a real home and a father whom she learned to love. Debby was attractive and popular, and she went with Buckie, a boy she liked very much. Then Joan, Mr. Milford's daughter by his first marriage, came to stay with the Milfords, and she also liked Buckie—and let him know it. Debby tried hard to understand her feelings about the situation and gradually gained more insight into her own character. But insight was not enough. She knew that she must act, must take a big step before she could acquire a sense of self-respect and the realization that she could handle her own life.

COOKE, D. C., editor. *Best Detective Stories of the Year*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc. 1957. 254 pp. \$2.95. This new collection is sure to please the ever growing number of fans who appreciate the author's flair for selecting mystery fiction, and who expect (and get) quality, variety, and punch in each annual volume. John Cunningham, William Fay, Kenneth Fearing, Evan Hunter, Robert J. Levin, John D. MacDonald, Ellery Queen, Craig Rice, Oscar Schisgall, Henry Slesar, Aaron Marc Stein, and F. J. Smith comprise this year's team (a mixture of old and new pros as usual). The magazines in which their stories originally appeared range from *Cosmopolitan* and *The Saturday Evening Post* to *Manhunt* and *Male*, with *This Week*, *Argosy*, and *Ellery Queen's Mystery Magazine* all represented.

COOMBS, CHARLES. *Rockets, Missiles, and Moons*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1957. 256 pp. \$3.75. In this age of amazing experimentation in the field of space travel, intermediate range ballistic

missiles and intercontinental ballistic missiles are mentioned frequently in the news. The announcement of the government program to launch unmanned, earth-circling satellites has also received much publicity. Mr. Coombs' new book is a broad survey of these breath-taking developments. He has based his account on extensive research, made possible through the co-operation of civilian and government experts.

Beginning with the story of an actual missile launching at Cape Canaveral in Florida, one of the most important launch sites in the world, the book goes on to discuss the rockets and missiles now being used and tested. There are still awesome difficulties to overcome, however, before reliable intercontinental missiles and space satellites ("moons") become a reality. These problems are explained in the book.

COOPER, J. F. *The Last of the Mohicans*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1957. 440 pp. \$1.75. "There is no hero in American fiction who takes you with him into his time and place more completely than Natty Bumppo," says Mrs. Becker in her introduction to this most famous of Cooper's romances. Bumppo is Hawkeye, the famous scout, of course, whom we meet here during the French and Indian War.

With Chingachgook and Uncas, noble survivors of the once-mighty Mohican tribe, Hawkeye attempts to lead a small party of English travelers along the dangerous trail from Albany to Fort William Henry in the Lake George country. From the first skirmish with the dreaded Mingos, to capture by the wily Renard Subtil; through escape, pursuit, recapture, and the triumphant meeting with the Delawares, the author tells a swift-paced and suspenseful story "which all over the world has become a part of the lives of boys."

CRANE, E. J.; A. M. PATTERSON; and E. B. MARR. *A Guide to the Literature of Chemistry*, second edition. New York 16: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1957. 417 pp. \$9.50. No chemist can possibly know all of chemistry, but he can know how and where to look for chemical information. This book is an effective key to the vast chemical literature. The book is completely revised and expanded in its second edition and brought up to date to keep pace with the rapid growth of chemical literature in recent years. The authors analyze various kinds of sources of chemical information; describe and classify important journals, books, and other publications; give ways of keeping up to date on various sources; and discuss libraries and indexes in relation to literature searches.

DELDERFIELD, R. F. *The Adventures of Ben Gunn*. Indianapolis 7: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc. 1956. 263 pp. \$3. Readers young and old who have net Billy Bones singing "Yo-ho-ho, and a bottle of rum!" who have heard the blind man's stick tap-tapping away from the Admiral Benbow Inn, and have sailed with Jim Hawkins aboard the *Hispaniola*, know that *Treasure Island* is the world's best adventure story. Long John Silver, Pew, Israel Hands, Black Dog, and Ben Gunn the maroon, are unforgettable characters. And yet, the book leaves so many important questions unanswered!

What, for instance, was Long John like when he had two legs, and how did he lose one? Why did Israel Hands fight to the death with his friend in the cabin? Just how was Pew blinded? Who had owned the wrecked ship in North Inlet? Who had built the stockade? Who was "Allardyce," the skeleton used as Flint's Pointer on the island? Why did the dying Flint call to Darby McGraw?

Where did the treasure come from, and why was it buried? And above all, how did a harmless creature like poor Ben Gunn ever come to be a pirate in the first place?

Here are two heroes—Ben Gunn and the scapegrace Nich Allardyce, young seamen on the brink of their bloodthirsty careers—mustered in to Captain Flint's crew to sail the *Walrus* under the Jolly Roger, and to accumulate treasure on the Spanish Main. Here is the story of the mysterious circumstances in which Allardyce and Flint disappeared, of all the desperate men who bluster their way through the battle, of the mutineers abandoned on the island, and of Long John Silver's incredible escape from the *Hispaniola*. Here is a prelude, companion piece and sequel, all in one, to *Treasure Island*, by a devoted, respectful admirer of Robert Louis Stevenson.

DEXTER, CHARLES. *The Street of Kings*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Company, Inc. 1957. 466 pp. \$4.95. This novel of history tells a story of why men contend, and it sets that story against a panorama of life in London and in the court of the early seventeenth century. It takes Robin Carr, in the beginning an equerry to Sir John Hay, from the stable and the Tilt Yard to the King's Privy Closet, where James of England drank and doddled and fended off enemies, flatterers, and friends alike. It takes Frances Howard, in the beginning the reluctant bride of the Earl of Essex, from her ancestral mansion to the scandalous House of the Yellow Ruff in Paternoster Row, thence by midnight to seek a love potion from Dr. Simon Forman, master of witchcraft.

It takes both Robin and Frances through the dark labyrinths of court conspiracy, with Sir Thomas Overbury the friend and guide who taught Robin courtrcraft and bent him to his own consuming ambition. And it follows them through their meteoric rise to power, to the sensational divorce suit in the arch-episcopal palace of Lambeth where their fortunes began to wane; and thence it goes through London's teeming streets to the climatic trials for murder in the Guildhall and Westminster Hall. We watch the Suffolks and Northampton work their devious wills upon the state. We suffer with Overbury in his imprisonment and know Raleigh, Bacon, Ben Jonson, and John Donne. And we pity Robin and his Frances, less sinners than misled into crime by a love that could not be crushed by King or Church or the Law.

DUMAS, ALEXANDRE. *The Three Musketeers*. Cleveland 2: World Publishing Company. 1957. 631 pp. \$1.75. Athos, Porthos, Aramis—and D'Artagnan! The names ring out in literature like a great shout, a call to adventure and romance. For the reign of Louis XIII of France was one of intrigue and danger. Cardinal Richelieu, backed by his own corps of guards and a network of spies, was the power behind the throne. And Anne of Austria, the beautiful but lonely queen, was suspected of loving England's Duke of Buckingham beyond discretion. Through this tangled web of history dash the king's three musketeers and D'Artagnan, each so alive that the story is as thrilling today as when it first took Paris by storm.

Because of his love for Constance Bonacieux, D'Artagnan, and his comrades are pitted against the Cardinal himself. Their mad chase to England in the affair of the diamond aiguillettes, their duels and affairs *de coeur*, the siege of La Rochelle, and the treachery of milady, Richelieu's agent, sweep the reader along with a power few people have ever attained.

DURRELL, D. D., and B. A. CROSSLEY. *Thirty Plays for Classroom Reading*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1957. 224 pp. \$3.75. These plays are designed as a new approach to the reading program in the intermediate grades. The plays

were selected after careful testing by more than 500 children and teachers, who rated the plays, chose the most interesting incidents, and listed difficult words and phrases. The plays are grouped in three sections to provide a gradual development from easy to more advanced reading. Practice exercises for the pupils introduce each play, and instructions are included for the teacher. Stage directions are replaced by a narrator's voice so that the entire dramatic plot is unfolded through dialogue.

In editing this book, the authors emphasize the vital role of play reading in the over-all reading program. They provide here an assortment of material to improve children's study skills and to stimulate their imaginations. The plays themselves are additions to the literature of the classroom. In content and spirit, they offer enrichment of ideas, aesthetics, and literary values. Some are historical, some are highly imaginative, some nonsensical, many are humorous, some are regional—all reveal delightful aspects of character.

Educators Guide to Free Films, seventeenth edition. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service. 1957. 637 pp. (9" x 12"). \$7. The seventeenth annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service on multisensory learning aids. This film guide will enable the school to bring to the boys and girls many experiences unavailable by any other means. This edition replaces all volumes and supplements which have preceded it. It is a complete, up-to-date, annotated schedule of free films. Many films "rented" to schools by other agencies are free from sources in this film guide.

For educational as well as financial reasons, free films from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered and continue to render a valuable contribution to the curriculum. Dr. John Guy Fowlkes adds another to his popular series of significant articles on contributions of free films to education.

This edition lists 3,880 titles of films, 842 of which were not listed in the previous edition. All new titles are starred. For seventeen straight years, the *Guide* has grown from 102 pages, listing 671 titles, to this volume of 3,880 titles. Perhaps of equal significance, the improvement in the quality of free films has paralleled the increase in the number offered. This *Guide* provides rich supplementary visual materials at a minimum cost.

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms. Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, Box 497. 1957. 211 pp. \$5. The ninth annual edition is a professional, cyclopedic service, on slidefilms (filmstrips) and slides. This service is devoted entirely to free slidefilms and free slides. It is a complete, annotated schedule of free slidefilms—bringing information on free slidefilms for immediate use within the covers of a single book. For educational as well as financial reasons, free slidefilms from industrial, government, and philanthropic organizations have rendered, and continue to render, a valuable contribution to the curriculum, by supplying information not available elsewhere.

This edition list 674 titles, including 46 sets of slides. In 1946, only 82 free slidefilms were available. Since that time, the quality and the number of free slidefilms have made most significant gains. Of the 674 titles, 131 were not listed in the eighth edition. All new titles are starred (*). All told, more than 40,000 separate frames or pictures, or miniature posters, from 91 different sources are available. Thirty-one of the slidefilms listed in this *Guide* may be retained permanently by the borrower, to start his filmstrip library, or to add to his present library. This *Guide* contains a wealth of supplementary visual materials at a minimum cost.

ENGLISH, EARL, and CLARENCE HACH. *Scholastic Journalism*, second edition. 1957. 348 pp. (8½" x 11"). \$2.50, plastic binding; \$3.50, cloth. This revised edition is a complete textbook and workbook in high-school journalism. It is a textbook, for it has the theory of a regular high-school journalism text, presented in outline or capsule form. It is a workbook, for it has examples, exercises, and space in which to perform many of them. A detailed style manual, which may be adapted easily to any particular school, has been included in this edition. Copyreading, proofreading, headline, and layout exercises are provided.

By virtue of its comprehensiveness, its organization, and its abundance of practice materials, this book may be used in practically any type of journalism course—a one-semester, two-semester, or two-year activity, or by staffs not having journalism classes. It is especially valuable to classes conducted by the laboratory method, for students can work ahead at their own speed. Good students will find plenty of additional exercise material to challenge them while their less experienced classmates work first and easier assignments.

Although this book contains a section on "Examining the Daily Press"—the purpose of which is to make students more discriminating consumers of this important medium—the authors have attempted to teach analytical newspaper reading throughout the book. Thus, when students are studying news values, they are not only learning about news values in order to evaluate facts in their writing, but they are also developing at the same time an understanding about the way these values affect treatment of news in the daily press. If high-school journalism courses are to justify themselves, improved newspaper reading must be an objective of every unit. It can be if a teacher keeps this objective in mind. It is easier to accomplish this objective if the text emphasizes this vital goal.

EVANS, CHARLES. *Kangchenjunga—The Untrodden Peak*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co., Inc. 1957. 207 pp. \$5.95. Third highest mountain in the world (28,146 feet), surpassed only by Everest and K2, Kangchenjunga remained unconquered until the British expedition led by the author scaled its heights in 1955. As Sir John Hunt had said, "There is no doubt that those who first climb Kangchenjunga will achieve the greatest feat in mountaineering, for it combines in its defenses not only the severe handicaps of wind, weather, and very high altitude, but also technical problems and objective dangers of an order even higher than those we encountered on Everest."

The author, remembered as the doctor on the historic 1953 Everest expedition, recounts this adventure on Kangchenjunga with detail. He calls the mountain "the untrodden peak," following the promise to the Sikkimese government that the expedition would stop within a few feet of the summit in order not to desecrate the ultimate peak which is sacred to the people of Sikkim.

The conquest was distinguished by excellent planning and efficient execution all the way to the sixth and final camp at 26,900 feet, with the chief complications an avalanche and a blizzard. Then came the success of two teams in reaching the summit, first by Joe Brown and George Band and then by Norman Hardie and Tony Streather. Like that of Everest, the story of Kangchenjunga is one of almost military assault carried through with efficiency and dispatch.

FEDDER, RUTH. *A Girl Grows Up*, revised. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. 1957. 320 pp. \$3.95. Dr. Fedder, who has worked with thousands of teenagers of today, says her purpose is not to offer specific solu-

tions, but to provide understanding guidance for girls to think through and solve their own problems. Twenty-one black-and-white drawings emphasize important ideas, and an expanded list of books and pamphlets encourages further reading about major aspects of growing up.

FENNER, P. R. editor. *Brother Against Brother*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1957. 192 pp. \$3. "There are many stories about famous generals and statesmen of this period, but the real heroes were the little fellows like you and me," writes the author in her introduction. Here are the little fellows: the young Rebel girl who invaded a Yankee camp to recover a stolen heirloom; the spunky little Southerner who believed the Yankees would eat him if they got the chance, and hid under a sofa to watch Lee sign his acceptance of the Union terms; the wounded corporal who went through the Rebel lines to bury his captain because he had promised the captain's father he would always look after his boys. Here, too, is the deserter who became a hero when rage against war drove out his weakness and fear, the veteran in his faded blue who mastered his own misery to save a little boy's faith, the young captain whose talisman was the banjo string he was taking home to his grandfather.

War touched the lives of all—men and boys, women and girls, old and young, confident and confused, bold and timid. Running through all their stories is the day-to-day courage of each one. And, leading the country through those tragic times, there was the man who had been one of the little fellows himself, who had shared their lives on the rough frontiers of Kentucky and Illinois and whose destiny brought him to Washington when the nation's fate hung in the balance.

FRAZEE, IRVING, and P. V. ESHELMAN. *Tractors and Crawlers*. Chicago 37: American Technical Society. 1957. 320 pp. \$7.50 Tractors and crawlers are used in ever-increasing numbers as a major source of mobile power in agriculture, logging, road-building, manufacturing, and a huge variety of other industrial pursuits. Skilled operators and servicemen are in growing demand. And yet it's surprising how little has been published, other than service manuals and parts catalogs, to provide a source of reference and instruction to the thousands of individuals called upon to exercise competent trade know-how in this important area of automotive technology.

This book has been written to meet the need for a comprehensive training plan to provide the broad knowledge of principals necessary to the skillful selection, maintenance, and repair of the modern tractor and crawler. Vocational instructors will find it helpful for both automotive and vocational-agriculture classes.

Design and construction features are covered. Chapters are included on suspensions and steering, engines and accessories, power trains, brakes, and hydraulic systems of virtually every major type of tractor and crawler now in use. Many of the chapters were reviewed for accuracy and thoroughness by companies engaged in the manufacture of the equipment discussed in the book. These companies, listed in the beginning of the book, also provided many of the large number of excellent illustrations.

FRAZIER, N. L. *Rawhide Johnny*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc. 1957. 180 pp. \$2.75. It is 1870 and no word has come from John Keith's father, who had gone to the Pacific Northwest to seek a better living. Then important things are revealed and John hurries West to a meeting—but his father never comes.

John meets pretty Kitty Harper and for a while love influences him not to join the railroad-building Bakers. But trains mean progress and soon he puts practical Yankee knowledge to bear, making the engines run, supplying snow-bound logging camps, going on cattle drives. Derisively the Bakers' venture is called the rawhide railway, but nothing stops its growth and, when enemies even take to carrying away the rails, John simply relays in front the tracks the trains have already run over. Later with money in his pocket he is about to head East when the mystery of his father is solved and, in a special way, John finds Kitty again. This is a true-to-fact story of courage no disaster could daunt—a picture of the kind of people who settled the Pacific Northwest.

GELD, E. B. *Strangers in the Valley*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1957. 239 pp. \$4. With the Gelds, Brazil had become a magic word for the last and most promising frontier on earth. Ellen and Carson Geld's journey southward was daring, but with them came courage, proven abilities, and their own memories of Malabar Farm, Ohio. Brazilians quickly found a place for them in their vast country, reviving a dying fazenda with modern farming methods.

Malabar do Brazil, the apt name for their new home, lies in the valley of the Atibaia River, surrounded by eucalyptus groves, philodendron-knotted forests, grass-covered hills, and craggy mountains. The experiment's success was obvious at the first harvest. But beyond measuring up to its initial tests, *Malabar do Brazil* has given the author a rich kind of life to write about, with its strange mixtures of people living in harmony and in conflict, a multitude of crops and animals, and the difficulties of setting up housekeeping in the winterless "land of tomorrow." People flocked to the new southern Malabar—strong Italians eager for honest, familiar work; sturdy, perfectionistic Japanese; Brazilians who could not easily accept new ways; couples who had spent years chasing will-o'-the-wisp fortunes—most of them strangers, like the Gelds, in the Brazilian valley, but all finding living close to the land a fulfilling necessity.

GILMARTIN, J. G. *Increase Your Vocabulary*, second edition. Englewood Cliff, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 207 pp. The purpose of this book is to arouse in the student an ardent desire for word cultivation. This purpose can be realized by enabling him to see the benefits that he will derive from the possession of a masterful and practical vocabulary, and the ease with which his storehouse of words can be increased. An attempt is made to vitalize the learning of word usage by presenting various types of exercises and distributing throughout the text numerous lessons containing games or quizzes.

In addition to exercises relating to definitions and pronunciations, many will be found that pertain to *root words, spelling, multiple meanings and uses, words frequently confused, diacritical marks, adjectival usage, and figurative speech*. The words selected were not chosen from any one list, but are the result of more than a quarter of a century devoted to the teaching of vocabulary to school, college, professional, and business groups. It is safe to say that if the reader will assimilate a reasonable portion of the subject matter found in this book, he will possess a forceful and practical vocabulary that will prove most beneficial in his everyday life. For conclusive proof that there is a real need for remedial work in the various areas of vocabulary building, the inventory tests at the beginning of the book should be worked without any special preparation. The results will furnish concrete evidence that much can be done by everyone to increase his word power.

GOLDING, WILLIAM; JOHN WYNDHAM; and MERVYN PEAKE. *Sometime, Never*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1957. 185 pp. 35¢. Three outstanding tales of science and fantasy.

Guidance Publications available from Barron's Educational Series, 343 Great Neck Road, Great Neck, New York:

1. BROWSTEIN, S. C. *College Bound*. 1957. 224 pp. \$1.98, paper; \$3.95, cloth. This new guide to college and career planning contains reference to 984 accredited college and universities with descriptions on each. A map locating each accredited college and university is also included. This book assists the student to select his college. It tells him which colleges may consider accepting him with his present class average and how to gain admission to college, how to help finance his education, and how much it will cost.

2. BROWNSTEIN, S. C., and MITCHEL WEINER. *How To Prepare for College Entrance Examinations*. 1957. 224 pp. \$1.98, paper; \$3.95, cloth. By using this manual the college aspirant can become somewhat familiar with the kinds of questions asked. Practice examinations are included and he can check his results with the correct answers which are worked out. In addition to the confidence and dexterity thus acquired, he may further sharpen his skills by concentrating on the other exercises and review materials included. The book also lists major colleges with their entrance requirements and presents general guidance for college candidates from the initial application to the final interview.

3. BROWNSTEIN, S. C.; MITCHEL WEINER; and S. H. KAPLAN. *You Can Win a Scholarship*. 1957. 448 pp. \$2.98, paper; \$4.95, cloth. The first part of the guide to college scholarship answers such questions as: "What scholarships? Who offers them? What qualifications are necessary?" The remainder is devoted to review materials, learning aids, and I.Q. stimulants to assist the candidate in qualifying tests, samples of which (with complete answers) accompany the English, social studies, mathematics, science, art, music, and health subject-area sections. Seven scholarship examinations and solutions are also included.

GUILLOT, RENE. *The Elephants of Sargabal*. New York 10: Criterion Books, Inc. 1957. 170 pp. \$3.25. At the summit of the Genies' Mountain, high above the Jungles of Sargabal, young Ajmil, the elephant boy, lived in freedom with the outcast children. But Ajmil was different from the others—within him moved the stirring and mysterious spirit of the Jungle, a spirit which led him to the great purple city of Rajpur to meet the beautiful Princess Narayana, Flower of the Morning, and save her from the enemies who sought to destroy her. And when the time came for her to regain the city she had lost, it was Ajmil who led the adventure, who brought the great elephants of Sargabal to her aid, and fulfilled the destiny the jungle had set for him.

HARK, MILDRED, and NOEL McQUEEN. *Teen-Age Plays for all Occasions*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1957. 473 pp. \$5. Lively and dramatic plots, sparkling dialogue, and true-life portrayals of young people characterize the one-act plays in this collection. The plays are royalty-free and ideal for production by teenagers. The original plots, which highlight familiar settings and situations, will be enjoyed by all young people. The excitement of a square dance, the thrill of catching a phonograph thief, the hilarity of a comic valetine mix-up, and the humor of a homecoming after a long vacation will be shared by audiences and actors.

The plays for the celebration of special occasions (Mother's Day, Book Week, Election Day, etc.) and of the important holidays (Thanksgiving, Christmas, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday) provide good entertainment and at the same time help bring out the true meaning of these occasions. These plays are appropriate for production in classrooms and assemblies in junior and senior high schools. The production notes accompanying each play will be helpful to the director.

HARRIS, CHRISTIE. *Cariboo Trail*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co., Inc. 1957. 188 pp. In the spring of 1862, a paddle-wheeler steamed along the Red River towards Fort Garry, which was later to become known as Winnipeg. Aboard the steamer were the Hawthorne family, on their way to join a wagon train heading for the Cariboo gold fields. It turned out that the Hawthornes were the only family in the brigade, and there was some objection to their going by men who felt that women and children would be a hindrance. But when a vote was taken, Mrs. Hawthorne brought a little subtle pressure to bear by baking some bread and making sure that the appetizing aroma was wafted to the noses of the men. Whether or not this was the deciding factor, the majority voted to let the family go along.

At Fort Garry, Maeve Hawthorne met young Ian McGregor, also bound for the Cariboo; and on the trail he became her close friend. It was Ian's great ambition to shoot a buffalo, and presently he did; but, unselfishly, he let the credit be taken by a pessimistic little chap who badly needed anything that would bolster his confidence in himself.

HEINSOHN, A. G., Jr. *One Man's Fight for Freedom*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1957. 167 pp. \$3. Based on actual experiences, this book presents a brief, factual account of a businessman's struggle against governmental controls and restriction, bureaucratic restraints, and socialistic attempts to set aside natural laws. Autobiographical in nature, the book cites true case histories and interprets.

HOFFINE, LYLIA. *Sioux Trail Adventure*. Caldwell, Idaho: Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1957. 160 pp. \$3. This book tells the story of Wi Sapa, a Sioux Indian boy who traveled hundreds of miles with his family and tribe across the northern Great Plains country. In the course of the journey he became separated from his people, lived with friendly enemies during the winter, and then finally found his family again.

The author presents a picture of the traveling Sioux, and of the other Great Plains tribes they visited, at a time just before the white man came to the area now known as South Dakota, Wyoming, Montana, and North Dakota. Family relationships and tribal customs are described in the simple style of the storyteller, the narrative unfolds to recount how the Indian boy of long ago enjoyed his play, loved his dog, made new friends, and handled the problems which he met in life.

Wi Sapa and his family lived happily until his father, Chief Many Bears, quarreled with another chief over the hunting grounds. Then Chief Many Bears decided to move, and he led his band on a long, wandering trail over the Great Plains country.

The boy had many adventures as his family moved about from place to place. His father had the singing ceremony made for him so that everyone might know that Wi Sapa was a brave boy. He took his first test of manhood. In a fight with the Crows, his best friend was wounded, and he went out after the battle and found him. Early the next summer, he was allowed to go on his first buffalo

hunt. He learned to ride a horse, was captured by the Mandans, escaped, and eventually made his way home to his own people.

HOWARD, R. W., editor. *This Is the West*. New York 22: New American Library. 1957. 240 pp. 35¢. The life, lore, and legend of the West; a saga of America's fabulous frontier and the daring men and women who carved an empire out of the wilderness.

HOYLE, FRED. *Frontiers of Astronomy*. New York 22: New American Library. 1957. 352 pp. 50¢. A revolutionary new view of the universe.

HUXLEY, JULIAN. *Evolution in Action*. New York 22: New American Library. 1957. 152 pp. 50¢. A world famous biologist explores the future possibilities of man.

KEATLEY, J. H. *Annapolis Plebe*. New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc. 1957. 174 pp. \$3. Ralph Miller, a long way from his home in Iowa, shivered in the June sunshine as he walked through the Main Gate of the U. S. Naval Academy. He was on his way to report to Bancroft Hall, soon to take his oath as a midshipmen. "This is it!" he thought.

Another newcomer, who introduced himself as Ernie Bissell, was assigned to the same room. He seemed to be just as nervous and excited as Ralph Miller. But almost immediately they found themselves taken into the quick-moving life of Annapolis. Things opened up so fast that, before they knew it, they were deep in an extraordinary new world.

True, Ralph and Ernie Bissell got off to a bad start when their room was not ready for its first inspection, and Ralph wound up with fifteen demerits at the end of his very first week, thanks to a Second Classman's order. But the pace of life kept up from day to day, and every day seemed packed with discovery and challenge. From new studies to his first liberty in Crabtown, from making friends among his classmates, like the lively little plebe named Everitt Martin, to the vigorous grind of football practice, Ralph's life was full to the brim.

KIELTY, BERNARDINE. *The Fall of Constantinople*. New York 22: Random House. 1957. 190 pp. \$1.95. From his bleak palace window the Emperor Constantine Paleologus stood looking down at the city of Constantinople. Below him lay all that was left of the once great Byzantine Empire. From the toe of Italy to the broad Euphrates River in Asia, the Empire had extended from the Danube in Central Europe to the falls of the Nile, deep in Africa. Now, in 1452, it was reduced to one city on the Bosphorus.

For 1100 years Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine Empire, had flourished and glittered like a jewel in a dark world. For while the Dark Ages drew a curtain down over Europe, ancient culture was kept alive in this Eastern center. Constantinople alone preserved Greek art, Roman law, and Christianity itself. It soon became the strongest and the richest city in the world.

It was no wonder that other peoples should fix their eyes greedily upon Constantinople. First the early Mohammedan Arabs and then the Seljuk Turks had tried to capture it and had failed. Later the Latins had invaded and plundered the city, only to be driven out again. But now in 1452 a new force was closing in upon Constantinople. The Ottoman Turks were on the march this time, tens of thousands of fierce warriors moving toward the golden city in massed formations. The Emperor Constantine looked down upon his impoverished city and shuddered.

KJELGAARD, JIM. *Wolf Brother*. New York 11: Holiday House. 1957. 189 pp. \$2.75. This is the story of a young Apache in the 1880's, when Indian reservations were new. Returning to his "home" after six years in the white man's schools, Jonathan hoped to help his people adjust to new ways of life. Instead, he was forced by circumstance to flee the reservation and join Cross Face's band of outlaws, who would not be confined. Jonathan soon learned that the lost cause of constantly raiding, fighting, or eluding the white soldiers was no solution. How he was captured, escaped, and worked out his own destiny form the climax of this book told entirely from the Indian viewpoint. Although fiction, this book is based on actual events in Apache history.

LEWIS, F. W. *One Man's Philosophy*. New York: American Book-Stratford Press, Inc., 160 Fifth Ave., Room 717. 1957. 155 pp. Succinct philosophical statements of the author, which he has acquired from study and observation over the years. These "memory gems" are classified under 38 categories.

LEWIS, HILDA. *The Gentle Falcon*. New York 10: Criterion Books, Inc. 1957. 256 pp. \$3.50. In this historical novel, little Princess Isabella of France, who was brought to London at the age of seven to marry Richard II, King of England, lives again. It is the story, too, of the adventures that befell fifteen-year-old Isabella Clinton after Richard summoned her from the country to be a companion for his delicate little queen. This tale of this unusual marriage is full of the color and pageantry of the medieval English court, of the plots and intrigues to undermine Richard's reign, of Mistress Clinton's own romance with a young follower of Bolingbroke and her involvement in the scheme to keep the little Queen from harm during the nobles' rebellion and Richard's ultimate overthrow.

MAINE, C. E. *High Vacuum*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1957. 191 pp. 35¢. The author writes a tale of a grim race with time. The Alpha rocket is the first manned expedition from Earth to get to the Moon. It makes a crash-landing and facilities for "the maintenance of the abnormal" are sharply cut. There is enough oxygen to support the four survivors for five weeks—or two for ten, or one for twenty. Nerve-racking because it is so matter-of-fact, this is a high tension story of ordinary men in an extraordinary situation, of decisions quietly made that are literally of life and death importance, and, in the end, of the naked determination of the human will to survive at any cost.

MARSH, I. T., and EDWARD EHRE, editors. *Best Sports Stories—1957*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1957. 336 pp. \$3.95. As usual this book covers the full range of the world of sports. Included are stories of baseball, boxing, football, track and field, swimming, the Olympic Games, yachting, marathon, tennis, hunting and fishing, and a group under the heading, "general." Also here are the regular features of the classified listing of the 1956 sports champions and the Who's Who in *Best Sports Stories*, giving thumb nail sketches of all the writers and contributors.

MARTIN, J. B. *The Deep South Says Never*. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1957. 181 pp. Hardbound, \$2.50; paperbound, 35¢. The story of the fight against integration of the schools.

McLEAN, A. C. *Storm Over Skye*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1957. 256 pp. \$3. All was not well in the small township on the island of Skye where Niall had always lived. No longer did neighbor trust neighbor—and Niall knew why. Last November at the sheep dipping, eleven sheep were missing. One man among their small group must be a thief. Niall longed for the return of his older brother Ruairidh—a merchant seaman during

the winter months—whom everyone liked and trusted. Surely he would know how to settle this matter, which was destroying the peace and neighborliness the township had always known. When Ruairidh did come back at the beginning of spring, the brooding suspicion and menace in the little township came to a head, and he and Niall were soon in the thick of an adventure that was strange, frightening, and dangerous.

MEADER, S. W. *Everglades Adventure*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Company. 1957. 192 pp. \$2.75. Toby Morgan was sixteen when his doctor father moved the family from New Jersey to Fort Dallas—now known as Miami—just after the Civil War. Florida then was a unexplored tropical wilderness that would have delighted the heart of an active boy—and Toby was no exception. Hunting, fishing, and cruising in his canoe through the watery channels of the Everglades, Toby soon came to know the birds and animals that abound there, as well as the ruthless plume hunters. He also discovered a forgotten tribe of Indians deep in the swamp land. One day, in a dangerous encounter with an alligator, Toby's life was saved by Miki-loko, son of the Caloosa chief, and they became close friends. Later, when Professor Evans, a naturalist, arrived to photograph Florida wild life, Toby was well qualified to act as guide for him and his tomboy daughter, Sue.

NEVINS, A. J. *Adventures of Men of Maryknoll*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead and Company. 1957. 267 pp. \$3. In this book, the author turns from the fiction of his adventure series of many lands, from Korea to Peru, to true stories of Americans who spend their lives in the service of others. Here the reader will find adventures in remote parts of the world that are more incredible than fiction. This is a book about real men and their effective deeds, rich in inspiration and achievement.

NEWMAN, DEBORAH. *Holiday Plays for Little Players*. Boston 16: Plays, Inc. 1957. 286 pp. \$4. This is a collection of 33 short, royalty-free plays for the celebration of holidays and special occasions. Written with imagination and understanding, these dramas are easy for young children to produce. They will capture and hold the interest of little players. All of the major holidays are represented in this collection, including Halloween, Thanksgiving, Christmas, Valentine's Day, Memorial Day, Lincoln's Birthday, and Washington's Birthday. There are also plays for special events, such as Book Week, Fire Prevention Week, Arbor Day, Flag Day and Class Day.

PALLAS, NORVIN. *The Empty House Mystery*. New York 17: Ives Washburn, Inc. 1957. 186 pp. \$2.75. This fifth mystery by the author combines a real puzzle with the story of Ted Wilford's strenuous efforts to get out the bi-weekly *Town Crier* while the editor is ill. Ted and his friend, Nelson, who have just been graduated from high school, devote part of their precollege summer to finding the thief of a set of plans for the new state thruway. Before they have solved this problem, they must discover how a telephone can ring in an empty house with no visible connection between the house and a telephone wire.

It all began for Ted one day in the office of the *Town Crier* when a man came in to advertise in the lost-and-found column for a missing folder with a peculiar zipper. Later when it was brought to the office by the finder, Ted, carried away by his desire to demonstrate the splendid service offered by the paper, personally left the folder at the advertiser's address. It turned out to be an empty house, but Ted has reasons for thinking it was logical to leave it there. However, later when he discovered that the folder really contained

plans stolen from the highway department, Ted knew he must find it as quickly as possible.

The quest leads Nelson and him into adventures in several empty houses, into an investigation of the mysteriously ringing telephones, and, finally, to a completely different solution than he or the reader had anticipated. The daily doings in a small-town newspaper office plus a well-plotted story make another Ted Wilford mystery, both for his fans and those who are meeting Ted for the first time.

PLUTARCH. *On Love, the Family and the Good Life.* New York 22: New American Library. 1957. 192 pp. 50¢. Moses Hadas translates seven of Plutarch's essays on life and love. Also included is an introduction and commentary.

PRINCESS MARIE LOUISE. *My Memories of Six Reigns.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1956. 256 pp. \$5. Princess Marie Louise, granddaughter of Queen Victoria, completed the story of her life shortly before her recent death at the age of 84. Every word was written in longhand by Her Highness. She presents her personal recollections and anecdotes against the ever-changing background of the past eighty years and six reigns in England—from Victoria to Elizabeth II.

Daughter of Prince Christian of Schleswig-Holstein, her mother was the third daughter of Queen Victoria. Her memories of her youth, her marriage to Prince Aribert of Anhalt, its subsequent annulment, and her life in the long years that followed at the English Court are told in warm and intimate fashion. Especially rich are the pictures of the Victorian and Edwardian eras. It is the chronicle of the intensely active life of an energetic and charming lady who pictures the world in which she moved with a keen zest for living. Many photographs from the Princess' personal albums are included.

REEDER, COLONEL RED. *West Point Second Classman.* New York 16: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, Inc. 1957. 242 pp. \$3.50. Clint Lane's third year at West Point proved to be far more exciting and full of surprises than he had ever expected it would be—or could be. It got off to a dizzy start when he took Betty Willard down Flirtation Walk to Kissing Rock, an ordeal that was almost worse than a Navy game. On top of that he found that he was wanted by the F.B.I. for a talk about his rifle, which had mysteriously disappeared.

Before that trouble was settled, Clint set forth with his classmates, including the trusty Chugwater Austin and Joe Flynn, on an action-packed "Cow trip," including a sample of Navy life aboard the U.S.S. *Tarawa*, firepower demonstrations, a night combat patrol, a flight in a jet. It was a terrific summer. Back at West Point, with the football season under way and a tough schedule of studies, Clint's life is just about getting back to normal, when he takes a flight with a general officer after the Illinois game. This almost puts Clint on the sideline for keeps.

RITCHIE, RITA. *The Year of the Horse.* New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1957. 191 pp. \$3. The wild pageantry of life in Genghis Kahn's empire in the Gobi Desert forms the background for this adventure of a Mongol boy in the year 1211. Botokai's father has been an honored and respected officer in the army of Genghis Khan until his conviction as a traitor ten years before. Stripped then of every possession, the family has been forced to live as outcasts and beggars in the teeming city of Karakorum. Although his father had died in disgrace, the young boy was determined to prove his innocence and restore the family honor. It was a dangerous mission for a

friendless, half-starved beggar. It would have been an impossible undertaking without the great horse Tengri, reared by the boy from a sickly colt, and the unexpected friendship of Dachu, son of a favored officer.

Dachu's devotion persuaded him to join Botokai's search, which led the boys on a dangerous journey over the mountains to a strange hidden valley and the secret held by a legendary recluse. Surrounded by intrigue and fearing for his life, Botokai came in time to distrust even Dachu. His search became a solitary one, leading him to an unfamiliar city and forcing him, unarmed, into the midst of a grim battle with the invading hordes of enemy Hians. When all of the accumulated evidence pointed to the guilt of his only friend's father, Botokai found himself faced with a bewildering decision, as he knelt on the white horse skin before Genghis Khan to plead his case. Both the story and the illustrations recreate the colorful lives of the Mongols and their fabulous leader, Genghis Khan.

SCHOLZ, JACKSON. *Man in a Cage*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company, Inc. 1957. 255 pp. \$2.95. Ted Kirby was waiting, in the Florida sunshine, to buy a ticket for the ball game when he was asked to help out the Boston Pilgrims, whose bat boy was missing that afternoon. It was Ted's first step away from the world of the circus, where he was learning to be a lion trainer, the man who gets into the cage with the big cats. The next step came soon. The situation at the circus suddenly changed; and the Pilgrim manager, discovering that his new bat boy had possibilities as a catcher, offered him a contract. In spite of Ted's devotion to the circus, he finally decided to sign it. The cage was a small one now—the catcher's mask. And Ted no longer was a solo performer. How Ted found himself as a ballplayer is the climax of a baseball story with a new twist, in which the author provides plenty of exciting diamond action and some equally exciting circus thrills.

STEINBERG, W. B., and W. B. FORD. *Electricity and Electronics-Basic*. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 848 East 58th Street. 1957. 255 pp. \$4.50. This book was written to provide basic instruction in the theory and application of modern electricity and electronics for schools and training programs, as well as on-the-job trainees, hobbyists, and home craftsmen. The enormous increase in the variety of complex electrical and electronic devices employed today, both in industry and in the home, has produced a growing demand for highly skilled technicians and tradesmen. Moreover, just about anyone who wants to feel at home in today's world of electrical marvels is beginning to look around for some quick, inexpensive way to obtain familiarity with the fundamentals of electricity and electronics. A need has arisen for instructional material which is comprehensive, covering all of the areas of electrical technology and providing a firm durable platform of knowledge of the electrical principles utilized in virtually every type of electrical device.

This book contains a general discussion of basic principles and their application to the major types of electrical apparatus now in use, from "Making Use of Magnetism" to the development of television and the use of geiger counters. Discussions of each basic principle—magnetism, current flow, wave propagation, etc.—and each important application—home electricity, electric motors, the telephone, television, etc.—are followed by fascinating, inexpensive projects for the reader to build, providing dramatic demonstrations of the principles expounded. How to make a simple wet cell, light meter, transformer, a-c motor, carbon mike, selenium power supply, transistor radio—these are just a few

of the more than 50 carefully selected projects designed to create a permanent visual and conceptual understanding of basic principles.

STILES, BERT. *Serenade to the Big Bird*. New York 3: Ballantine Books, 1957. 150 pp. 35¢. A book out of World War II—a young American airman's account of himself.

STOCKWELL, D. P. *Land of the Oldest Hills*. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, Ltd. 1957. 141 pp. \$4. Born and reared in the land of which she writes, the author tells of hill-folk life and living. Nowhere, she says, will you find a people more steadfast to home and family. And nowhere does spring steal in more shyly or burst forth with more beauty than in the Ozarks. In summer the night sky drips with a million sparkling stars and the hill country is filled with the sweet strains of fiddlin' music. The winds ripple the acres of ripening wheat and the hillmen hurry about their summer harvesting. Then comes the autumn, with a peace and beauty all its own, and the Ozarkians go through the days feasting on the season's glory, until, one night, the warmth and sunshine are ended by a great white frost. Then the long, cold winter closes in and folk busy themselves with cooking foods, quilting, and making gifts for loved ones. Next year, and the year after that, it will be the same, for customs change little in the Land of the Oldest Hills.

SWIFT, H. H. *The Edge of April*. New York 16: William Morrow and Company. 1957. 316 pp. \$3.95. In 1837, when John Burroughs was born, life on a remote farm in the Catskill Mountains was primitive. People sometimes lived all their lives within a ten-mile radius, and although a man might ride to the nearest town to trade homemade butter for salt or molasses or shoes, such trips were few and far between. Everyone in the Burroughs family worked hard, from the mother with her weaving and baking and candle making to the smallest boy, who fed the chickens and brought in wood for the stove almost as soon as he could toddle.

Like the others in his big family, John Burroughs was always busy with farm work. But in one thing John was different. He was keenly aware of the outdoor world around him and determined to explore it. He was five when he decided he must find out what made the strange, silvery music that came from the swamp. The little boy's best clothes were wet and muddy before he succeeded in finding a spring peeper, but he always remembered with joy his first look at the tiny brown-gold frog. Near the end of his long life he spent a whole enraptured morning watching a redstart "performing its astonishing gymnastics in a leafless oak tree." It flashed from branch to branch so swiftly that the whole tree seemed to be "festooned by a black and orange cord."

THOMPSON, M. W. *Snow Slopes*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Company, Inc. 1957. 179 pp. \$2.75. Arleigh Burd and her widowed mother plan to use their new home in Westbury, Vermont, as a guest house for skiers and thus make their living. Arleigh is in high school and longs to earn a scholarship for college. Now she finds she must earn money at once; for her impractical mother, not used to doing without, has spent too much money too fast. They cannot pay their current bills. When a neighbor calls for assistance, Arleigh gladly helps week ends at Snow Slopes. The tantalizing exposure to skiing, however, presents a problem, an inner struggle, for Arleigh is slightly lame from polio. But at Snow Slopes she meets Garry Caldwell who with his parents comes to stay at the Burds' home every week end.

United States Government Organization Manual. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 778 pp. \$1.50. The *Manual*, compiled each year by the Federal Register Division of GSA's National Archives and Records Service, is the government's official organizational handbook. Regarded as the most reliable single source of accurate and up-to-date information on Federal organization, it is a perennial "best seller" among publications sold by the Superintendent of Documents. The current edition contains sections on the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of the government, including independent agencies, quasi-public bodies, and multilateral international organizations. It also provides, as a completely new feature, a guide to approximately 60 selected boards, committees, and commissions.

Each branch, department, bureau, and independent agency is described in terms of its purpose, functions, activities, and the legislative authority under which it operates. The *Manual* lists 4,100 key officials of the Federal government. The publication also contains some 40 charts showing the organization of Congress, the executive departments, and the large independent agencies. Of particular value for research is a 56-page section containing brief histories of Federal agencies whose functions have been abolished or transferred since March 4, 1933.

USSHER, ARLAND. *Three Great Irishmen: Shaw, Yeats, Joyce*. New York 22: New American Library. 1957. 132 pp. 50¢. An appraisal of three literary giants—Shaw, Yeats, and Joyce.

VERNE, JULES. *The Mysterious Island*. Cleveland 2. World Publishing Company. 1957. 626 pp. \$1.75. This book is one of the best "desert-island" stories ever written," Mrs. Becker says in her introduction to this book. For the five castaways who find themselves on an uncharted, volcanic island in the Pacific Ocean after escaping in a balloon from Richmond during the Civil War are brave, resourceful men who refuse to consider themselves castaways at all. They become colonists instead and, using only the raw materials of the island and what they know, create a whole new world.

What a moment it is when, exhausted and without supplies of any kind, the little group find one lone match in the pocket of Gideon Spilett's waistcoat! What joy when their dog Top leads them to Captain Harding, mysteriously rescued from the sea after they had given up all hope of finding him! Step by step, the reader is carried with them, sharing their struggles against hurricanes, pirates, and wild animals, their delight in their snug cliff dwelling, and finally, when it is almost too late, learning the secret of the island and facing with them the greatest danger of all.

WALTERS, RAYMOND, Jr. *Albert Gallatin*. New York 11: The Macmillan Company. 1957. 473 pp. \$7. Through his resourceful and tireless leadership on the Democratic-Republican forces in Congress, this native of Switzerland was, perhaps, more responsible than any other man in bringing about the election of Jefferson to the Presidency. For this he was appointed Secretary of the Treasury in 1801, a position he held for twelve years. No other Secretary of the Treasury has yet equalled Gallatin in length of service; few men who have served the Federal government since have matched his abilities as an administrator.

Gallatin's greatest service to his adopted country was his inspired guidance in financial matters; but he was not content to act only the part of a financier. By his policies, he shaped the political and social destiny of the United States. His influence extended also to foreign relationships, military and naval affairs,

and internal improvements. In 1813, he began his ten years of diplomatic service abroad. As a diplomat, he led the negotiations that brought the War of 1812 to an end, won important trade advantages for his country, and saved for the United States against the pretensions of Great Britain the present states of Washington and Oregon.

No less exceptional were his activities during the last two decades of his life. He was a leader of the New York banking community during several periods of great stress. His contributions to the ethnology of the American Indian have become part of the essential, enduring fabric of the science.

WELLMAN, M. W. *Lights Over Skelton Ridge*. New York 17: Ives Washburn, Inc. 1957. 180 pp. \$2.75. Discovering why lights were seen on most nights over Skeleton Ridge in the North Carolina mountains and exploring the caves of the ancients there made Dave Burnett's job with Professor Dinwiddie the summer following his high-school graduation a fascinating and exciting experience. With Willie B., a good friend and a wonderful musician, and attractive Ivy Radfield, who both lived in the little mountain settlement, Dave not only found adventure but also a new interest in archaeology. To his complete bewilderment, he also earned the dangerous enmity of a rather unusual witch doctor who, for some odd reason, resented Dave's curiosity about the caves.

Most exciting of all was a wonderful series of caverns they found deep in the recesses of a cave. What they found there was important not only to the professor's archaeological study but, even more so, to Dave and his friends. Thus, Dave counted the day when Professor Dinwiddie's car got stuck in a mudhole near his uncle's farm, a very lucky one for him. The fact that the professor was impressed with his abilities as Dave worked the car out of the hole opened up a whole new life for him.

WHITE, HILDA. *Wild Decembers*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Company. 1957. 336 pp. \$3.50. In this biography of a strange, talented, and doomed family, each of the Brontes assumes the reality of a living individual, portrayed against the wild background of the Yorkshire moors. Although, by her very nature, her unyielding standards, and unrelenting demands, Charlotte dominates the story even as she dominated the lives within the parsonage at Haworth, she does not overshadow the personalities of Emily, Anne, and the tortured Branwell. The story of each of the Reverend Patrick Bronte's children is a dramatic one, and here all are interwoven as they were in real life.

Consumed by a feeling of guilt over the death of his wife and his two oldest daughters, the Reverend Bronte, in an effort to protect his remaining children, succeeded only in creating an atmosphere of physical confinement and brooding, emotional tension. As childhood was left behind, the latent genius in each of the four children found a means of individual expression in response to this atmosphere. While their way of life, circumscribed as it was, seemed normal to them, the physical weakness that was the Bronte curse was ever present, their unavoidable heritage, driving, distorting, subduing, enraging and destroying each in turn.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

About the Ford Foundation. New York 27: Foundation Office of Reports, 477 Madison Avenue. 1957. 32 pp. Free. Contains general information about the organization and activities of the Ford Foundation and the independent, nonprofit corporations it has established.

Action and Reaction, Public Relations for Educational Secretaries. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1201-16th Street, N. W. 1957. 32 pp. \$1.25. A report on a survey of activities of educational secretaries, with suggested ideas.

ANDERSON, M. H.; O. R. GERAkis; and O. M. HAUGH. *Books About Occupations: A Reading List for High-School Students.* Lawrence: Editor, School of Education Publications, The University of Kansas. 1957. 48 pp. 10¢. A reading list prepared to help counselors and teachers who need to know good books about specific occupational areas to which students might be referred. The list is organized around the ten main divisions of the *Kuder Preference Record* since this is the most commonly used guidance instrument used in Kansas. There are about 600 books included for 92 different occupations, plus about 30 books dealing with the subject of "General Vocations."

Annual Report. Trenton 25: New Jersey State Department of Education. 1956. 22 pp. The report of the State Board of Education and the Commissioners of Education to the Legislature of the state of New Jersey, covering the 1955-56 school year.

ASHWORTH, M. H. *The Dark Places.* New York: Friendship Press. 1957. 32 pp. 50¢. A one-act play about prejudice. Other plays include *Fever Heart* (1957. 31 pp. 50¢) by Raymond Jennings and *Between Yesterday and Tomorrow* (1957. 31 pp. 50¢) by Vern Rossman—both are one-act plays of Japan.

BETTS, E. A. *Success Levels for Retarded Readers.* Haverford, Pa.: The Betts Reading Clinic, Publications Department, 257 West Montgomery Avenue. 1957. 5 pp. 40¢. Discusses various reading difficulties encountered by pupils.

Bibliography of Teaching Aids. Washington 6, D. C.: American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1816 N Street, N.W. 1957-58. 16 pp. Free. Lists and describes pamphlets and charts available from this organization.

BRENNAN, J. J. *Juvenile Delinquency: A Radical Approach.* New York 17: American Viewpoint, 122 East 42nd Street. 1957. 12 pp. 25¢. An analysis of the core problem of juvenile crime with some suggestions for a practical program.

A Brief Statement of the History and Activities of the American Council on Education, 1918-1957. Washington 6, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W. Describes the function and program of the American Council on Education; also contains list of its members.

Building Curriculum in Social Studies for the Public Schools of California. Sacramento: California State Department of Education. 1957. 119 pp. A progress report of the California Central Committee on Social Studies.

CARVER, C. H., and H. G. SLIKER. *Literature of the World Around Us.* Englewood, N. J.: Prentice-Hall. 1957. 84 pp. Free on the adoption of the text. This is a pamphlet of suggestions and aids for teachers using the text of the same name.

Ceylon—1957. Washington 25, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 16 pp. 15¢. Discusses the land, the people, the organizations of its government, its economy, and United States-Ceylon relations.

The Cost of Peace Is Your Business. Washington 3, D. C.: Public Affairs Institute, 312 Pennsylvania Avenue, S.E. 1957. 28 pp. Briefs of findings of the many recent studies on economic assistance abroad.

CRUICKSHANK, W. M. *The Exceptional Child in Contemporary Education.* Syracuse 10: Syracuse University Press. 1952. 28 pp. \$1. This J. Richard Street lecture considers and evaluates a series of basic issues and discusses

several of them. Also available is the 1954 lecture, *Can American Lose Her Free Public Schools?* by V. M. Rodgers (31 pp. \$1). Discusses a number of points that could lead to the loss of our free schools. He suggests things that must be done to retain them.

DUNFEE, MAXINE, and JULIAN GREENLEE. *Elementary School Science: Research, Theory, and Practice*. Washington 6, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 1957. 77 pp. \$1. Presents in precise form the research in the field. Deals also with problems of purpose, method, and curriculum organization in the light of the practical situation in which teachers teach in our elementary schools today.

Education for Gifted Children and Youth. Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education. 1957. 39 pp. A guide for planning programs.

The Flexible School. Washington 6, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals. 1957. 72 pp. \$1.25. A guide to school planning in which the school is geared to the society it serves, one that can change is needed, one that can play a part in shaping the direction of desirable change within the social framework. The purpose of this booklet is to suggest ways in which such a school can become a working reality and to provide some guides to good educational planning in a world of change.

Food Facts Talk Back. Chicago 11: The American Dietetic Association, 620 North Michigan Avenue. 1957. 32 pp. 50¢. Challenges 121 popular misconceptions about foods and nutrition and gives reasons why all of these statements, and others just as commonly heard, are false. The booklet consists of three sections: fallacies about foods and nutrition, misconceptions about weight reduction, and food myths—pregnancy and lactation. In addition, the Introduction includes a daily food plan which gives the foundation for an adequate diet.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials. Nashville 4: Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers. 1957. 264 pp. \$1. The volume is designed to help the librarian, teacher, and pupil to collect current sources of information. The last edition, published in 1956, reached fifteen thousand teachers. The entries are annotated, and are carefully selected for content, timeliness, readability, and freedom from obtrusive advertising.

GARY, Indiana—*A Study of Some Aspects and Outcomes of a General School Survey*. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1957. 40 pp. A report of an investigation.

GLENNON, V. J. *The Road Ahead in Teacher Education*. Syracuse 10, N. Y.: Syracuse University Press, Box 87, University Station. 1957. 64 pp. \$1, paper; \$2, bound. Discusses problems affecting the preparation of teachers—spelling out the speakers thoughts on the dual but interrelated problems of the strategy and tactics of improving programs for their preparation.

Good News for Household Workers. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 16 pp. 10¢. This 16-page booklet, in color, with easy-to-read text and unique cartoon-type illustrations, was designed to inform cooks, maids, laundresses, and other domestic workers about old-age, survivors, and disability insurance benefits.

GOODFRIEND, ARTHUR. *Two Sides of One World*. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 87 pp. 50¢. A report on an international discussion of human values in social change in south and southeastern Asia and in the United States with implications for Asian-American cooperation.

Helps for Developing Home-room Programs. Norristown, Pa.: Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, Court House. 1957. 138 pp. Designed to provide specific suggestions for individuals who are concerned with the rather difficult problem of planning and carrying out home-room programs in our secondary schools.

HOPPE, ARTHUR. *The Core in Junior High School.* Bloomington: Indiana Book Store. 1957. 52 pp. \$1. Chapter 1 presents the theory of the core; the second describes the core program of an Indiana junior high school whose program has been in operation for twelve years. The third chapter describes the resource unit, which is an indispensable asset to the core. Finally, there are selected references to aid the reader who wishes to delve more deeply into the area.

Introduction to Arithmetic Computers. Culver City, California: Office of Scientific Staff Relations, Hughes Aircraft Company. 1956. 35 pp. One of the "Teachers in Industry" pamphlet in the School-Industry Science Program, includes information about number systems, their relation to computers, and a discussion of computers and their use; discusses the history of numbers, explains the theory of the four fundamental operations using binary numbers; discusses the difference between mechanical and electrical computers; and describes the Bureau of Standards Western Automatic Computers at the University of California at Los Angeles and explains programming problems for the machine. Also available from the same source, *Teachers in Industry* (1956. 32 pp.) in which ten teachers report their experience in the summer program; and *School-Industry Science Program* (1956. 50 pp.) describes the company's summer program and summarizes the experience gained in providing summer employment for teachers through which they keep abreast of technological changes and, in turn, become better teachers.

MEDER, A. E. Jr. *Modern Mathematics and Its Place in the Secondary School.* New York: Commission on Mathematics, College Entrance Examination Board. 1957. 16 pp. Free. A reprint from the October 1957 issue of *The Mathematics Teacher*.

MEESE, L. E. *A Manual for School Board Members.* Lexington: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, University of Kentucky. 1957. 61 pp. \$1. Discusses the significant role of local boards in providing appropriate educational opportunities for children in our times.

MOORE, H. A., Jr. *Studies in School Administration.* Washington 6, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators. 1957. 208 pp. Summarizes major accomplishments in the improvement of school administration which can be traced to the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA) and provides an annotated bibliography of all important publications issued by regional CPEA centers or by other cooperating groups and institutions.

The National Council of Adult Education. Wellington, New Zealand: The National Council of Adult Education, 192 Tinakori Road. 1957. 27 pp. The ninth annual report, 1956-57.

NICKEL, K. N. *Better Education for Nonacademic Pupils.* Minneapolis: Charles W. Boardman, Secretary of the North Central Association, University of Minnesota. 1957. 34 pp. 25¢. The booklet summarizes findings from a sample of North Central Association high schools, recommendations of authorities in

the field, and previous research in the field. It also contains dozens of practical suggestions to principals and teachers for working with nonacademic pupils.

1956, A Year of Progress. Decatur, Alabama: Public Relations Department, Chemstrand Corporation. 1957. 16 pp. Free. Some of the accomplishments of the Corporation. Pictorial plus text.

Our Teachers—Their Importance to Our Children and Our Community. New York 17: Education Department, National Association of Manufacturers, 2 East 48th Street. 1957. 22 pp. Free. Points out education needs the support and guidance of all those whose lives are enriched by it and whose futures depend upon it. Next to parents, no one deals more intimately than teachers with a youngster's talents and deficiencies, failures and achievements during his crucial, formative early years.

Outstanding Educational Books of 1956. Baltimore 1, Maryland: Publications Department, Enoch Pratt Free Library. 1957. 2 pp. 5¢. The latest edition of this 33-year-old list for teachers, supervisors, administrators, and librarians. Of the 614 books, pamphlets, monographs, and reports in education published during 1956, forty, or approximately 6.5%, were judged to be outstanding by a group of some 200 educators. The list of these titles gives all information necessary for purchasing, and supplies brief descriptions of the books.

Pocket Guide to Air Force Opportunities. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Air Force. 1957. 84 pp. Free. Suggestions to those entering the Air Force. Brief descriptions of opportunities open in the Air Force for men and women. Pictorial.

The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. *Second Report to the President.* Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 122 pp. 55¢. The purpose of this *Second Report* is to concentrate on a few central problems of particular urgency which call for widespread discussion, planning, and action; to develop the salient facts and important policy considerations which bear upon these problems; to stimulate further discussion and planning at the local level; and to make certain recommendations.

The *Report* is aimed primarily at the lay public rather than professional educators. In general, it presents round numbers rather than detailed statistics. Each chapter, as well as the Summary Report, is designed in such a way that it can stand largely alone, with a minimum of need for referral to other chapters for a better understanding of the Committee's approach to the particular subject.

The report is composed of a "Summary Report" and five chapters entitled as follows:

Chapter I—The Need for Teachers.

Chapter II—The Need for Assistance to Students.

Chapter III—Expansion and Diversity of Educational Opportunities—the Need for Planning.

Chapter IV—Financing Higher Education.

Chapter V—The Federal Government and Education Beyond the High School.

The Committee hopes that the report will be a means for focusing widespread public consideration on the problems involved, a consideration which will stimulate and encourage the necessary solutions from many sources.

The report is written for the layman. He will not find in it much that is new, although the recommendations are the first thus to be crystallized by a nationally composed body of laymen and professional educators. As such, the committee hopes that the recommendations will add point to the necessity for planning, the urgency for action, and will add to public understanding of the nature and importance of the problems involved.

PRESTWOOD, E. L. *The High-School Principal and Staff Work Together*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1957. 104 pp. Presents an informed and practical approach to the solution of many problems which challenge all who work together in our secondary schools—problems which are of fundamental concern to sincere, creative, intelligent people who recognize teaching as a profession rather than a job.

PRICE, G. A. *The Coming Crisis in Education*. Lewisburg, Pa.: Bucknell University. 1957. 15 pp. Commencement address at the University, June 10, 1957.

Progress Report, 1957. New York 22: The Fund for Peaceful Atomic Development, 3 East 54th Street, 1957. 22 pp. A statement of stewardship in the use of foundation monies to assist people in other countries to get started on civilian programs. Reports on activities in the promotion of peacetime program of atomic energy in other countries.

Public Relations Gold Mine. Washington 6, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W. 1957. 64 pp. \$1.25. A group of articles selected for their references value in public relations.

RALYA, LYNN L., and LILLIAN L. *A Guide to Vocations in the Social Sciences*. Santa Monica, California: The authors, 907-14th Street. 1957. 31 pp. \$1.25. Discusses the vocations in each social science field and compares vocations in the social sciences with each other and with vocations in the humanities and in the natural sciences. Also includes ten tables.

RELLER, T. L. *Merit Pay for Teachers?* Berkeley 4: Associated Students Store, Mail Order Section, University of California. 1957. 8 pp. A guide for the study of merit pay. Also from the same source is *Merit Pay?—What are the Issues?* (30¢) Includes bibliography.

SCHUKER, L. A. *Testing Is One Form of Evaluation*. Jamaica 32, N. Y.: The author, Principal, Jamaica High School, 168th Street and Gothic Drive. 1957. 2 pp. Mimeo. Free. Discusses purpose of tests, evaluation in terms of objectives, criteria of a good test, types of objectives tests, and essay tests. Also available from the same source is *Discipline Referrals* by Howard A. Hurwitz (1956. 2 pp. Mimeo. Free). Presents aims, referral procedures, the role of the attendance offices.

The Shortage of Scientists and Engineers. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 330 West 42nd Street. 1957. 12 pp. Free. A special series of fine articles to increase public knowledge and understanding of this problem.

SMITH, G. B. *Who Would Be Eliminated?* Lawrence: Dean of the School of Education, University of Kansas. 1956. 28 pp. Free. A study of admission to college in which two commonly used measuring instruments to limit the number of students are examined to show how this principle of selective admission would have operated if it had been used at the beginning of the present decade rather than at the end.

Teaching by Television. Pittsburgh 13: Metropolitan Pittsburgh Education Station, WQED. 1957. 24 pp. The story of what metropolitan Pittsburgh has been doing since 1955.

These Seeds We Plant. New York 17: Camp Fire Girls, Inc., 16 East 48th Street. 1957. 12 pp. The 1956 annual report.

U. S. Air Force Occupational Handbook. Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Air Force, The Pentagon. 1957. 195 pp. Free. A manual for vocational guidance counselors and air force personnel officers. High-school teachers can use it in helping students select courses of study that will be of value in future Air Force technical training courses

Where You Come In. Akron 16, Ohio: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company. 1957. 17 pp. Free. Discusses the individual part in our economic and social order. The idea of active participation of each individual.

A Woman in Berlin. New York 3: Ballantine Books. 1957. 207 pp. 35¢. A woman's night-by-night account of how the Russians ravaged a city.

Women in the Federal Service, 1954. Washington 25, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents. 1957. 15 pp. 15¢. Covers the types of positions held, salaries, and opportunities for advancements.

News Notes

THE EXPANDED PROGRAM OF NEA SERVICE

About 6,000 delegates from the local and state affiliated organizations voted at the Philadelphia Convention in July 1957 to increase the dues in the National Education Association. This decision was reached by secret written ballot and by a majority of about 4 to 1. This conclusion came after careful and widely shared discussion—national, state, and local—extending throughout the country and over a period of nearly two years. Broadly speaking, this decision was based on the conviction that urgent problems, national in scope and vital in importance, now confront American education. The organized profession, it was agreed, cannot meet these problems without an expanded program and greater financial resources.

Higher Costs for Continuing Services

Dues in the National Education Association have not changed since 1948. Meanwhile, teachers' salaries have been increasing,—and NEA deserves a good deal of the credit for this trend. The costs which the National Education Association itself must meet have also gone up sharply. Here are a few examples:

In 1948 a secretary could be employed in Washington for \$2,400. Today, at least \$3,500 is necessary for a starting salary—increase of 48%. Typists used to start at \$1,800; now they must be paid at least \$3,100,—an increase of 72%. The figures for janitors are \$1,600 in 1948 and \$2,400 today,—an increase of 50%. The cost of paper for publishing the *NEA Journal* has risen by 20%. The cost of printing a 64-page *Journal* and mailing it to all NEA members has gone up 27%. Each new typewriter costs 60% more than the old typewriter it is replacing.

The NEA staff salary schedule was revised in 1955, but these adjustments were overshadowed almost immediately by an average 8% increase in salaries paid by the Federal government. Now Congress is considering a further 15% wage increase for professional and semi-professional Federal employees. The National Education Association must revise its staff salary schedule to compete with other organizations for the services of employees of the ability required. To do this, it was necessary to increase dues or to cut services. In short, the \$5 bill of 1948 would not buy \$5 worth of goods and services in 1958. It may be estimated that this inflation accounts for about half of the amount by which the dues have been increased.

Building Costs

When the NEA headquarters is completed in 1958, there will be nearly \$6,000,000 invested in the building, not including the land on which it stands or furniture and equipment. Annual interest payments on the debt assumed by the Association to complete the new building may, during the early years of this indebtedness, amount to as much as \$120,000.

Ownership of a fine new building relieves the Association of the necessity of paying rent, but it must assume the cost of maintaining and safeguarding its investment. To keep the new building in excellent condition, as delivered by the contractor, will require an increase of about two thirds in maintenance costs. Since the new building provides adequate floor space per employee, it will cost more to clean, heat, and light. A building depreciation fund of not less than 2% of the cost of the building should be set aside.

The National Education Association now has more than 60,000 life members. Their initial payments made it possible to construct the new building and their continuing installments should erase the debt over the next ten years. Meanwhile, these life members are receiving services as all regular active members do, but their payments must go to the building fund rather than to the annual operating fund.

Expanded Services

The NEA budget for 1957-58 provides the first steps in carrying out the expanded program approved by the Board of Directors in July 1956. The budget for 1957-58 allows realistically for the fact that time will be required to recruit and to select the additional staff needed for the expanded program. It anticipates a series of new and strengthened services to the members, provided, of course, that the dues increase has no adverse effect on the steady growth of NEA membership.

The report of the management survey of the National Education Association will probably become available in October 1957. This survey is a part of the expanded program. It will undoubtedly include recommendations for strengthening the Association and more productive expenditures. The steps contemplated in 1957-58 to expand the Association's activities and services will now be presented in about the same order as were the recommendations of the Board of Directors at the 1956 Representative Assembly.

1. *Legislative and State Relations:* Two professional staff members with clerical assistants have already been added to this area. The new expanded program includes employment of *five part-time field workers* to assist with regional and state legislative conferences and substantial further resources as needed for travel, printing, and other purposes.

2. *Field Operations and Membership Promotion*: Several field workers are to be added to present the program of the NEA as a whole to local and state groups. Additional resources are provided for cooperative state workshops and for special services to local associations. A staff member has already been employed to work on *membership in the large cities*. An associate membership director will be added to the staff. Additional funds have been provided to strengthen many other aspects of membership promotion.

3. *Lay Relations*: The important and valuable cooperative programs of the NEA with the Magazine Publishers, with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, with the American Legion, and with the National School Boards Association will be greatly strengthened by the additional funds provided.

4. *Professional Development and Welfare*: A salary consultant has already been employed for the last half of 1956-57. Funds have now been provided for a full year. An associate will be added to the staff to work with faculties and students in *teacher education institutions*. Additional funds are available for printing and conferences.

The services of the *Department of Classroom Teachers* will be strengthened by the added resources provided for clerical assistance, printing, and regional meetings and conferences.

The funds allocated to the *Defense Commission* will provide for additional clerical assistance, travel, and especially for investigations and reports to promote professional conditions for the educational service. The program of the *Citizenship Committee* has already been expanded moderately. Provision is made for expansion of the work of the *Credit Union Committee*.

5. *Educational Services*: An allocation is available to make the excellent services of NEA departments and other units more fully available to the profession in the improvement of its services.

A consultant on *Kindergarten-Primary Education* has been employed for part of 1956-57. Funds have been allocated for a full year.

The Association will pay the salary of a staff member of the *National Training Laboratory* to give educational groups more help in training leaders.

A consultant on *television education* and a clerical assistant will help the Association to make this medium most effective in classroom instruction.

An Associate Executive Secretary will be added to the staff in *higher education*.

The allocations for *rural service* have been increased especially for travel, printing, field work, and regional conferences.

The program on the education of *exceptional children* will be somewhat enlarged.

The *Social Studies* department will be assisted in an experimental project in the teaching of international understanding in an actual school situation.

A *United Nations observer*, long an objective of the Association, will be added to the staff.

A convention manager will be added to the staff to assist the President in formulating the program for the annual convention, to work with local convention committees, and to be in charge of regional instructional conferences.

6. *Information Services*: Competition for the attention and interest of the public in education is keener than ever. One of the Nation's leading public relations firms will be engaged to assist the Association in utilizing *television and radio programs* to stimulate and inform public interest in educational affairs.

A qualified artist and a person to concentrate on *promoting the sale of NEA publications* will be added to the staff. Funds are provided for materials to promote the sale of publications.

The allocations for *research* will provide additional clerical assistance and other expenses in meeting the increased demands which will be made upon the Research Division by the expanded program.

It will be possible to furnish all NEA members with the two 80-page issues of the *NEA Journal*, rather than one. Funds are provided for more art work and engraving. Additional issues and wider circulation of the *NEA News* have been possible.

7. *Business Management*: The principal increases in this area are as follows: \$20,000 for *rent* in the interim before Stage III is completed and \$8,000 for *maintenance*; \$10,000 to meet certain expenses at the *Philadelphia convention* and to enable the Association to assume part of the expenses which would otherwise fall upon local groups for the 1958 Cleveland convention; about \$31,000 for added costs of *social security* and other employees' benefits; and \$40,000 for furniture and equipment to replace obsolete furniture and equipment.

8. *Reserves*: Substantial amounts have been allocated to meet unanticipated expenditures during the first year of the expanded program and to establish a "war chest" to assist both the national and the state education associations in meeting emergency problems which may arise at any time. The establishment of these reserves is dependent upon income from increased dues equalling or exceeding the estimated amount. While the Board of Directors expects that NEA membership growth in 1957-58 will continue, the reserve constitutes a prudent measure to protect the service program against unusual demands and possible losses in revenue.

REDUCING THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

"What do we do to interest young people in the profession?" Do we exemplify in our own teaching those qualities that will make youngsters want to be like us? Do we actively encourage qualified young people to give serious consideration to teaching as a career? Or do we, by our actions and words, make it evident that no person with "any sense" would go into teaching? Which is it? Unquestionably there are many reasons for the shortage of teachers these days: the greatly increased birthrate, inadequate salaries, wider opportunities for women, to name but a few. But a little nagging doubt persists, "Wouldn't it be just a little bit easier to interest young people in teaching if we as individuals had done more to encourage them?" National campaigns, publicity in the subways and buses, all such media are important. Nevertheless, the personal example, the work of encouragement from the good teacher or counselor can do much to stimulate enthusiasm for teaching as a career.—Editor of *The Core Teacher*, published by the Curriculum Laboratory, Division of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Temple University, Philadelphia 22, Pennsylvania.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

Cincinnati, Ohio, will put itself on the map for American Education Week in November as it kicks off the annual event with a community mass meeting which will be broadcast nationally. Following suit, cities and towns all over the United States will mark the 37th Annual American Education Week,

November 10-16. National sponsors are the National Education Association, the American Legion, the U. S. Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

AEW's theme matches that of the NEA Centennial: "An Educated People Moves Freedom Forward." Working with local groups in planning their own AEW programs, the NEA is offering 65 "help" items this year—the largest number ever. Two new films on education's progress, *Section 16* and *The Challenge*, will be features of the week, available through the NEA. Both were presented to NEA as a public service by the Westinghouse Broadcasting Company. A brand new guidebook for AEW planners, *Your Town . . . On The Map*, has also been prepared by the NEA.

Each day will have a topic for special emphasis. They are: Nov. 10—"Education for Moral Values"; Nov. 11—"Education for Responsible Citizenship"; Nov. 12—"What Our Schools Should Achieve"; Nov. 13—"Ways To Provide Better Education"; Nov. 14—"Our Community's Teachers (National Teachers Day)"; Nov. 15—"Our School-Community Relationships"; and Nov. 16—"Our Own Responsibility for Better Schools."

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER PROMISES NEW FEDERAL AID MEASURE

One reason Pres. Eisenhower did not speak up for the school construction bill during the four crucial days of House debate (July 22-25) was that H. R. 1, in his opinion, stressed too much "this theory of grant" and stressed too little "this item of need." The President's feelings concerning H. R. 1, which was defeated by a vote of 208 to 205, became somewhat clearer after a close reading of his remarks made to newsmen a week after the death of the bill. In his press statements, Mr. Eisenhower stressed:

—He has always wanted to limit Federal aid to education to emergency school construction and for a short time only.

—He has always searched for a plan which would prevent "dipping of state hands and elbows into the Federal treasury."

—He believed that H. R. 1 failed to satisfy his formula that only needy states and districts should be eligible for Federal aid. But he said he was willing to sign it "because he was so concerned about the classroom shortage." However, he was not willing to speak up for it because H. R. 1 wasn't really to his liking and represented a compromise of his views.

Now hear this . . . Mr. Eisenhower ended with this comment: "I am getting to the point where I can't be too enthusiastic about something that I think is likely to fasten a sort of an albatross, another one, around the neck of the Federal government. But I do believe we should take a look at this question of need honestly and meet it and meet it today. And I tell you this, I will have another bill ready for the next session of Congress."

WORLD CHART—NEARLY 5,000 FACTS

The Civic Education Service, Inc., (1733 K Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.) has just published a large chart (50" x 36") entitled *A World of Facts*. Civic Education Service is the publisher of the well-known secondary-school weeklies—*American Observer*, *Weekly News Review*, *Junior Review*, *Young Citizen*, and the teacher publication, *Civic Leader*. The chart is a schematic arrangement of 39 columns of important facts about 88 countries of the world.

Information given about each of these 88 countries includes area, population, capital, largest city, main river, chief languages, main religions, date of entry into the U. N., type of government, national form of legislature, title of chief executive, annual income, leading products, yearly exports as to kind and value and per cent to United States, the same for yearly imports, the number of people per car and telephone and radio, railway mileage, percentage of illiteracy, major sports, etc. The chart is made of durable paper and is easily read. It is attractive and one that is serviceable to the schools of the nation as well as to persons interested in foreign affairs. Prices for this chart are: 1 to 5 copies, \$2.00 each; 6 to 10 copies, \$1.50 each; 11 to 100, \$1.00 each; and 101 or more, 75 cents each.

BETTER LIGHT, BETTER SIGHT

The Better Light Better Sight Bureau, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York, publishes a magazine on light entitled *Better Light Better Sight News*. This magazine is published bi-monthly: February, April, June, August, October, and December. Subscription rate is one dollar per year. Each issue contains articles on light and its relationship to sight. The Bureau, a non-profit organization, also publishes teaching aids about light and sight for use in the classroom and consumer folders and films on lighting.

WORLD AIRWAY STUDY UNITS

The Pan American World Airways, 28-19 Bridge Plaza North, Long Island City 1, New York, has received so many requests for back copies of its *Teacher Study Units* that they have now reprinted them and are making them available with a binder for the cost of the reprinting. Two groups are now available for one dollar each. Group I includes study unit on Alaska, Australia, Germany, India, Japan, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, South Africa, and the United Kingdom. Group II includes ABC countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile); Benelux (Belgium, The Netherlands and Luxembourg); the Caribbean; Central America; France; Hawaii; Iberian Peninsula (Spain and Portugal); Italy; Middle East (Lebanon, Syria, Jordan, and Iraq); Scandinavia; and Finland.

UPCOMING STATIONS REPORT PROGRESS

Passage of an ETV network bill in Florida and settlement of a station controversy in Philadelphia, head the report from upcoming ETV stations. The Florida legislature voted heavily in favor of Governor LeRoy Collins' plan for a state-wide ETV network. The Senate and House in May passed a bill providing \$500,000 for building a micro-wave network and \$100,000 for financing the operation of the system and expenses of a State Educational Television Commission.

ETV station WTHS-TV is now in operation at Miami, and others are being planned at St. Petersburg, Jacksonville, Gainesville (University of Florida), and Tallahassee (Florida State University). Jacksonville's Educational Television Inc., recipient of a construction permit in February, has its Channel 7 almost complete. According to Heywood A. Dowling, president of the organization, plans for WJCT have progressed to the point where a fall target date is promised.

Philadelphia's ETV station, WHYY-TV, delayed from its on-air date last December by a controversy over station control, now reports a target date.

Recent reorganization of the board of directors gives greater representation to the school board and city council, and provides for the withdrawal of Walter Biddle Saul, one of the founders and president of the Metropolitan Philadelphia Educational Radio and Television Corporation. Public School Authorities, who had withheld school board funds last December, immediately approved payment of \$100,000 to WHYY-TV.

Other ETV station developments involving FCC action are: the Greater Toledo Educational Television Foundation filed for permission to operate on Channel 30; the State of Oregon, through the State Board of Higher Education, received a construction permit for Channel 7 in Corvallis; and an application has been filed with the FCC for Channel 3 in the St. Petersburg-Tampa area.—*N. E. T. News.*

SCIENCE ACHIEVEMENT AWARDS

Young scientists in the nation's schools can once more compete for prizes totaling \$10,000 in the seventh annual program of Science Achievement Awards for Students, the National Science Teachers Association (NSTA) has announced. Conducted by NSTA's Future Scientists of America Foundation, the program is sponsored by the American Society for Metals. Deadline for student entries is March 15, 1958.

Science students in grades 7 through 12 are eligible to participate. They can win any one of 140 awards which include U. S. Savings Bonds, gold pins, plaques, and certificates. The awards are given for reports on projects in any field of science and mathematics, with special awards for projects dealing with metals and metallurgy. They will be made on a grade-level basis in eight geographic regions. Teachers should request student entry forms and additional information from NSTA at the headquarters of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

LANDMARK BOOKS DRAMATIZED ON ENRICHMENT RECORDS

With the release of four new recorded dramatizations, Enrichment Materials, Inc. continues to make the events which built America and the men and women who took part in them come alive for young people. The new releases are based on the following Landmark Books, published by Random House: *John Paul Jones: Fighting Sailor* by Armstrong Sperry; *The Story of D-Day, June 6, 1944* by Bruce Bliven, Jr.; *The Erie Canal* by Samuel Hopkins Adams; and *The First Overland Mail* by Robert E. Pinkerton. The content and technical presentation of these fine recordings are planned and executed by an advisory board of nationally known educators. The four new dramatizations come on two 33 1/2 rpm (long play) records. Complete information about *Enrichment Records* may be obtained from Enrichment Teaching Materials, 246 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, New York.

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES POPULAR IN THE UNITED STATES

The number of people following correspondence courses in the United States is higher than the total number of students taking first year studies in universities and colleges, according to the International Bureau of Education in Geneva. One of the most popular correspondence courses is accountancy, and twenty-five per cent of the qualified accountants in the country gained

their diploma by this method. Many engineers also follow courses by mail. Some 400 private correspondence schools exist in various parts of the United States to cater for this wide demand. (UNESCO)

GRANT FOR SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING EDUCATION

A grant of \$1,500,000 to finance a special three-year program for stimulating education in science and engineering has been announced by Eugene Holman, chairman of the board, as the latest of several activities marking the 75th anniversary of Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. The grant is being made to the Esso Education Foundation, which will in turn distribute the funds in several ways. The Foundation was established in 1955 by Jersey Standard and certain of its affiliates to give financial aid to private colleges and universities. In that year and in 1956, the Foundation gave a total of \$2,260,000 to such institutions. The special 75th anniversary grants for scientific and engineering education will be in addition to substantial grants to be made by the Foundation later this year.

During the first year of the three-year program, grants will be made to aid science teaching in secondary schools and in undergraduate and graduate schools of colleges and universities. At the secondary-school level, opportunities will be provided for teachers to bring their backgrounds up-to-date through two summer institutes and one in-service institute. The summer institutes, to be held on college campuses, will cover six to eight weeks and the grants will meet expenses of the host institutions and provide board, room, tuition, traveling expenses, and a stipend to the teachers to help compensate for loss of summer earnings.

The in-service institute, based on strong recommendations from high-school and college educators, will enroll 100 public, private, and parochial school science teachers in a metropolitan New York university for a course of 27 Saturday sessions. It is an experimental operation and may be extended to other cities.

"It is the belief of Jersey Standard that this \$1,500,000 gift (made in observance of its 75th anniversary, will help to meet certain urgent educational needs," Mr. Holman said. "The company hopes that the program will, in addition, stimulate new thought and research in the teaching of science and engineering and that it will inspire other organizations to contribute support. Such thought, research, and support can go far towards the development of individuals able to perform the scientific and engineering work which the future will require. The progress of mankind rests in a significant degree upon the progress of science and engineering, which such individuals can assure," he said.

THE BRIDE WEARS A MORTARBOARD!

Wedding bells aren't breaking up that old college gang! According to Mrs. Alice K. Leopold, Assistant to the Secretary of Labor for Women's Affairs, more than one fourth of all women out of their "teens," but continuing their college education, are married. The 1956 figures gathered by the U. S. Bureau of the Census show that 30 per cent of all men college students and almost 12 per cent of all women college students were married. Most of these students were 20 years of age or more, and only one per cent of the 18- and 19-year old boys and two per cent of girls in the same age group in college were married.

School enrollments are still rising. The college group from 18 to 34 years of age rose some 30 per cent in school enrollment between 1950 and 1956, in spite of a decline of almost four per cent in their number in the population. This sharp rise undoubtedly indicates the growing awareness of the need for specialized training of people in the Nation's expanding economy.

EDUCATIONAL TV INCREASING

Reflecting the steady growth of educational television, non-commercial ETV stations are broadcasting an average of 31 hours per week as compared to 25 hours one year ago. During the one-week period of April 1-7, 21 of the 23 ETV stations broadcast a total of 645 hours, according to a report issued by the Educational Television and Radio Center of Ann Arbor, Michigan. In a similar period last year, 19 stations broadcast 468 hours of programs.

Variety of educational programming was emphasized in the report, which indicated that the fare ranged from credit courses to programs in music and dance, literature and philosophy, science and industry, and to more practical subjects like crafts and hobbies, homemaking, and public health and safety.

The survey showed that the proportion of live programming dropped slightly from a year ago. Fifty-eight per cent of total programming was "live" as compared with 60 per cent in 1956. Programs designed for children, both for in-school and after school viewing, showed a 52 per cent increase this year over last. The larger increase was in programs aimed at school viewing, which went up by 59 per cent, while home-oriented programs increased by 42 per cent. Most popular program categories were music and dance, literature and philosophy, science, and national and world affairs. Least in evidence on the program schedules were programs in vocational guidance. A complete report of this survey can be secured by request from Educational Television and Radio Center, Washtenaw Avenue, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF FREEDOM

The Ninth Anniversary of the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights will be widely observed this year. Since its unanimous acceptance by the U. N. General Assembly in 1948, it has had a significant influence on human affairs and has received widespread acclaim. President Eisenhower has hailed it as "... a significant beacon in the steady march toward achieving human rights and fundamental freedoms for all." It has influenced the actions of nations and individuals throughout the world.

The Declaration is a statement of universally accepted principles; it is not a treaty and creates no legally binding obligations. It does set out a number of high goals to which all nations might aspire. The Declaration is especially significant for us in the United States because it represents a world-wide recognition and acceptance of the values set forth in our constitution, the Bill of Rights and the Declaration of Independence. These documents marked gigantic strides forward in man's historic quest for liberty and justice. In order for freedom to grow and flourish, it must be shared with other peoples and with other nations.

Teachers in this country may wish to use Human Rights Day (December 10) as an occasion to call the attention of their pupils to the American tradition of freedom and the necessity for American leadership in the struggle for freedom for all mankind. They may wish to point out the role played by the United States in proving that a society can be built on the philosophy that

the individual and his rights should be guaranteed and protected by the government. It is the responsibility of each citizen to respect the freedom and dignity of his fellowman.

A number of materials have been developed to assist teachers in making the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the American Bill of Rights more meaningful to their pupils. The UNESCO Relations Staff of the Department of State (Washington 25, D. C.) has available for free distribution the following materials: a United States Office of Education booklet entitled "How Children Learn About Human Rights" which suggests ways in which a sense of responsibilities and rights may be developed in children; a leaflet—*Human Rights Day*—containing the text of the Declaration and suggestions for observances; and attractive poster; a side-by-side comparison of the Declaration and the Bill of Rights; and a checklist and fact sheet outlining the background of the operation and offering hints on program activities.

ONE OF 4 MARYLAND GRADUATES GO TO COLLEGE

A survey of 15,161 boys and girls who were graduated from Maryland high schools during June 1955 revealed that one in four was going to college. This study, conducted by the Maryland State Department of Education, also showed that 71 per cent of those continuing their education beyond high school were enrolled in institutions within the state. Of the 22 counties and Baltimore City in the state, Montgomery County topped the list with 53.5 per cent of its high-school graduates going to college; Baltimore City was second with 31.7 per cent; and Garret County was lowest with only 9.3 per cent of its high-school graduates going on to college.

GOOD READING

Have you read: "Staggered Schedule, Faster Service" [school lunch] by James E. Nancarrow, *Nation's Schools*, July 1957, pp. 78, 80. . . . , "Certification in California Public Schools, July 1, 1955 to June 30, 1956" by Carl A. Larson, *California Schools*, June 1957, pp. 276-293. Also in the same issue—"The Future of Junior Colleges in California" by Roy E. Simpson, pp. 271-275. . . . "What Parents Want To Know About Their Child's School" by I. W. Stout and Grace Langdon, *Nation's Schools*, August 1957, pp. 45-48. Also in the same issue—"Policies Approved for Student Activity Accounting" by C. M. Davis, pp. 68, 70, 72, 74. . . . The entire May 1957 issue of *High Points*, published by the Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, New York, is devoted to science. Likewise, the June 1957 issue is devoted to a survey of science and mathematics enrollments in New York City's secondary schools.

COMPILED BY TEENAGERS

The students of the Great Neck Junior High School in Great Neck, New York—Dr. Aaron H. Lauchner, Principal—engaged in a project which they called "Youth Speaks." The story is told that after participating in the Spring Music Festival given annually by the Great Neck Junior High music department, two students were stopped in the hall by a curious spectator. He expressed his admiration for the fine concert and inquired about whether such programs were presented frequently. When the students replied in the affirmative, he probed further into the lives of junior high-school teenagers. When he learned of the many beneficial activities offered by both school and community, he seemed surprised and voiced his opinion that the adverse



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aspects of youth were exaggerated by the sensationalism printed in newspapers and magazines, while the worthwhile contributions youth made were ignored. Keeping this opinion in mind, thirty-four Great Neck Junior High-School students met with the four G. O. officers to discuss plans for a project called "Youth Speaks."

The result of the work of this Youth Speaks Committee was a 20-page brochure entitled *Etc.* It portrays the Great Neck teenager—his likes, his dislikes, his activities, and his problems. The brochure discusses briefly: "From Sixth to Seventh" (the junior high school), "From Ninth to Tenth" (the senior high school), "Extracurricular Activities" (the student council G. O.), clubs, and intermural, community recreation facilities, "Fads" (clothes, Rock'N Roll, and going steady), "Give Us a Chance" (what parents say and what the adolescents says), "What Shall We Wear" (in prose and poetry), "Do's and Don'ts" (at home, at school, at parties, dances, and dates and in general). This is an attractive and unique booklet by students and for students.

PRINCIPALS STUDY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

It is important that teachers understand what the junior high schools are trying to accomplish. Because new teachers are continually joining the teaching staff, the study of the distinct nature and purposes of the school must be continuous. Because the college preparation of many teachers in junior high school was aimed broadly at "secondary schools" the formal study of their own organization has been relatively slight. The group of twenty-eight principals of the Philadelphia junior high schools decided a few years ago to do something about this situation. A representative committee planned a study program designed to explain the purpose of the junior high schools and why they are as they are.

The junior high schools are planned for pupils in their early adolescence. The principals' group believes that, because these schools are designed for a specific age group, they must necessarily be different from schools designed for other age groups. Moreover, they must consider both the characteristics and the needs of the pupils if they are to serve most satisfactorily.

What are the characteristics of the twelve- to fifteen-year-olds? Are these pupils different from their brothers and sisters in the elementary schools and the senior high schools? Have the pupils changed? Will they change again about the time they reach senior high school? The answer is, in general, "Yes." Although many characteristics carry on throughout their stay through the twelve grades, the emphasis on some of them in junior high school is quite different. The principals' group, in a study guide, *What Are Adolescents Like?*, points out characteristics that are particularly emphasized during the early adolescent period.

The principals' group states further that the pupils are somewhat different because certain characteristics have been sharpened at this time, and, therefore, their needs will be different. These needs must be satisfied in a manner that considers the characteristics of the junior high-school pupil. To disregard the characteristics of this age group is to invite failure.

The new pamphlet, *Our Junior High Schools—What Are They Like?*, written by a committee of junior high-school principals, considers the activities and program of the junior high school in terms of these needs. The eight needs of the early adolescent are:

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According to this pamphlet, the junior high school (a healthy atmosphere in which young adolescents can be helped to develop naturally, and with intelligent guidance into intelligent, social human beings) recognizes that certain needs must be met for its pupils, either in school or outside of school. It knows that the needs must be answered for each pupil. It therefore seeks to provide an atmosphere in which young adolescents, within a narrow age span, can be helped to develop normally, with intelligent guidance, into responsible, contributing citizens of a democracy.—Clayton E. Buell, Assistant to the Associate Superintendent for Junior High School Curriculum, Philadelphia, in *School News and Views*.

FULBRIGHT AWARDS

Young American graduate students and teachers will have an opportunity under the Fulbright program for 1958-59 to serve as English language assistants in the secondary schools of the Federal Republic of Germany, according to Kenneth Holland, President of the Institute of International Education. Competition for these awards has opened and candidates can apply between now and November 1. Successful candidates will serve as assistants to teachers of English in German high schools. They will not teach regular classes, but will conduct conversational exercises and sponsor English clubs and workshops on American history and literature. If assigned to schools in university areas, they may have the opportunity to attend classes or carry out research.

Candidates with some teaching experience and a master's degree are preferred. Preparation in the fields of English, history, or American studies is helpful. Applicants should have broad experience in extracurricular as well as academic activities, and should be well-informed about American history, institutions, tuition, books, and maintenance for one academic year.

Basic eligibility requirements for these foreign study fellowships are United States citizenship, a college degree or its equivalent by the time the award will be used, knowledge of the language of the country of application sufficient to carry on the proposed study, and good health. Preference is given to applicants not more than 35 years of age.

Countries in which other grants for graduate study are available under the Fulbright Act are Australia, Austria, Belgium, Burma, Chile, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, India, Israel, Italy, Japan, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, the Philippines, and the United Kingdom. In the Asian countries—Burma, India, Japan, and the Philippines, as well as in Greece—mature candidates are preferred.



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The Fulbright program is part of the international exchange activities of the U. S. Department of State. It will give more than 900 American citizens the opportunity to study abroad during the 1958-59 academic year. Since the establishment of the program over 6000 American students have received grants for foreign study.

Persons interested in these awards can receive further information by writing to the Institute of International Education, 1 East 67th Street, New York 21, New York, for the brochure *United States Government Grants*. The information Division of IIE in New York City will also answer inquiries from applicants concerning study facilities abroad.

PHYSICAL SCIENCE STUDY

Personalities from the worlds of science and education, ranging from Nobel Prize winners to high-school students, worked last summer at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to lay the groundwork for a revolutionary approach to the teaching of high-school physics. About a fourth of the group was secondary-school teachers. The project, perhaps the most ambitious of its kind ever undertaken, was carried out by the Physical Science Study Committee under the sponsorship of the National Science Foundation. The group recruited 100 men and women to plan a new kind of program in high-school physics which will make use of the best modern thought and techniques.

One major objective of the group was to complete the first draft of a textbook which presented a unified picture of nature from the point of view of atomic physics. This text will be used on a trial and test basis in a number of specially selected secondary schools this school year.

In addition to the textbook, the summer study committee also worked with films, equipment for classroom demonstrations, a teacher's manual, monographs to supplement the required reading, and a laboratory program with do-it-yourself kits. Do-it-yourself techniques were emphasized wherever possible so that students who want to investigate the principles of physics on their own can use apparatus made from materials that are readily available. The group developed such things as a lens holder made of a juice can and a clothespin clip, and an apparatus for demonstrating wave phenomena which was made up largely of soda straws and used "damping fluid," a mixture of four parts of syrup and one part of water.

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN THE U. S.

The United States attracted more foreign students to its schools last year than ever before thereby establishing itself as the mecca for scholars from all around the world. More than 40,000 foreign students representing 136 countries flocked to the United States for study during the 1956-57 academic year, according to a detailed study on educational exchange released by the Institute of International Education.

Of the 40,666 foreign students attracted to United States schools, the IIE survey revealed that almost a third (31%) was from the Far East indicating the intense struggle of these Asian nations for a higher standard of living through better education. More than a fifth (22.4%) of these foreign students was from our Latin-American neighboring countries.

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The single country that sent the largest representation was Canada (5,379), followed by China (3,055), and then Korea (2,307). The nation of Korea had the biggest increase in scholars studying here, having jumped from eighth place two years ago to third place during 1956-57 when 2,307 Koreans were reported to be enrolled in our colleges and universities.

The status of women in the world was reflected in the preponderance of male over female students, according to the IIE census. Men outnumbered women three to one generally, but the disparity was even greater in the Middle East and Far East countries. One startling exception was the Philippines where the women edged the men by 877 to 837, possibly indicating the greater Westernization that has taken place in the former United States possession.

What kind of study these foreign scholars pursued also reflected the needs of the countries from which they came. The Far and Middle East scholars majored heavily in engineering with the humanities and social sciences as second and third choices, whereas more than a quarter of the Europeans and Canadians preferred courses in humanities with engineering a close second.

The IIE study also revealed that more and more U. S. schools are opening their doors to foreign scholars. Every state in the Union had foreign students enrolled in its colleges and universities, although more than two thirds of the foreign exchanges were concentrated in the schools of ten states and the District of Columbia. The states were New York, California, Michigan, Massachusetts, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Texas, Ohio, Indiana, and Minnesota. Thirteen universities reported more than 400 foreign students in attendance, seven being state supported and six privately endowed. Four universities—University of California (1,473), Columbia University (1,356), University of Michigan (1,109), and New York University (1,021)—had more than one thousand foreign students enrolled.

Another significant trend that continued in educational exchange is the large number of students who were self-supporting. Nearly half (45.2%) of the foreign students were studying in the United States through private means indicating that more and more individuals throughout the world are taking the initiative in pursuit of education abroad. Schooling for a large number (over 40%) of the exchange students was still being made possible through aid from private organizations, educational institutions, and governments.

The "Open Doors" survey also gave figures on Americans studying abroad for the 1955-56 academic year because of the length of time required to survey the institutions abroad. The IIE census reported that 9,887 Americans traveled overseas to enroll in 387 institutions in 54 foreign countries during 1955-56.

Figures also were compiled on foreign faculty and doctors in the United States, and on American faculty abroad. More than 1100 foreign professors representing 61 nations were teaching in American colleges and universities during 1956-57 while almost 7,000 foreign doctors from 88 countries were training as internes or residents in American hospitals throughout most of the nation. The IIE census reported that almost 1500 U. S. professors taught or carried out research projects abroad with 781 of them concentrated in European schools.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL COURSES ISSUED

Two new junior high-school publications have been made available to the Philadelphia schools by the curriculum office: *Guide to Mathematics, Grades*

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7 and 8, and *Guide to the Teaching of the Social Studies*. The officially adopted *Guide to Mathematics, Grades 7 and 8*, was presented to the chairmen of mathematics departments in the junior high schools at a meeting when it was explained and discussed. This course is similar to the tentative one mimeographed and distributed about three years ago. Since that time, some minor alterations have been made, and the course has been presented to the Board of Superintendents, revised, and presented to the Board of Public Education for official approval.

It arranges for the exploration of various areas of mathematics. Units of "Informal Geometry" and "Algebra" are forerunners of the formal mathematics that may be studied in grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. Units on "Mathematics of Personal Income," and "Mathematics of Investments and Home Buying" provide preparation for home responsibilities and for employment in industry and business. Such work may be continued in General Mathematics in Grades 9, 10, and 11.—*School News and Views*.

CLOSED CIRCUIT TV

When closed circuit television was installed in the Hagerstown, Md., public schools, it posed some serious questions for veteran history teacher Jean Moser and her colleagues. Would the classroom teacher become a "baby sitter" or "monitor" for her pupils while the TV teacher was on the "air?" How would TV affect relationships among teachers, since only a few could perform before the cameras? And most important, would pupils learn as much or more by watching television.

Now, after nearly a year of sharing her work with TV teachers, Miss Moser has the answers to some of the questions. "We are convinced that in using TV teacher-classroom teacher teams, we are providing better instruction in the subject matter fields than we provided by the traditional methods," she asserts.

Miss Moser, in a report to the Educational Television and Radio Center in Ann Arbor, explains that the faculty and administration of the Hagerstown schools have organized teaching teams. The TV teacher is responsible for work that television can do best and the classroom teacher handles teaching which can best be conducted by direct contact with pupils.

The Hagerstown schools are conducting a county-wide project in teaching by closed-circuit television to blanket the entire system of 25 schools and 18,000 pupils by 1958. Six thousand pupils in eight schools received some TV instruction during the past winter.

In the classrooms where TV is being used, the TV set is turned on for only the first half of the class period. The regular classroom teacher takes over for the latter part. Miss Moser says the television teacher introduces and presents the lesson while the classroom teacher reviews or clinches the factual material and makes the assignment. The history teacher says that the classroom teacher can best handle such things as classroom discussion, clear up immediate misunderstanding, direct and supervise activities out of the TV lesson, help pupils to exercise critical judgments, and give attention to the establishment of desirable habits and traits. On the other hand, the TV teacher can help to stimulate interest and provide general information through lectures and demonstrations. Through the use of the TV camera, she can bring visual aids before a great many students at one time. The television teacher can suggest activities and challenge pupils to assume more responsibility for their own learning.

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Pupils are being helped by the provision of a daily study guide sheet to be followed during the TV lesson and to be filled in with notes taken during the lesson. Miss Moser said, "We are convinced that the classroom teacher part of the team must be better qualified and a more forceful teacher than was required in the traditional setting. He or she must be thoroughly grounded in the subject field, in child psychology, and in teaching techniques. Thanks to television and the way we are using it, we are providing better instruction in the subject matter fields than we provided by traditional methods."

FACTS ON MERIT RATING

The National Education Association's Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (TEPS) stepped into the merit-pay-for-teachers controversy in what it called "an attempt to throw more light on a subject which so far has generated much heat." The Commission released a comprehensive factual report of incentive pay plans in the June issue of its official publication, *Journal of Teacher Education*. The report includes a summary of *pros* and *cons* in the merit plan dispute and presents a series of case histories.

Statistically, the report finds most merit plans are short lived. During the past 18 years, programs granting higher maximum pay for superior service have been reported by 148 different cities. Only 26 have such schedules in operation this year. Information is based on queries to all school districts known to have such plans in operation or under consideration and to those districts where merit programs have been tried and abandoned.

Even with this collection of evidence, no answer is found to the basic question—whether pay incentives tend to bring about maximum teaching effectiveness. The report does, however, dispel much of the misinformation which has tended to snowball. Though merit rating is often viewed as a single problem, the report indicates that it is really a constellation of problems. The issue is clouded by the lack of a common definition of the term itself. In no case, says the report, is a merit plan a substitute for an adequate salary schedule. But a salary schedule may become a merit schedule if it includes either of these two devices: higher maximums for teachers judged to be superior or acceleration of increments to reward above-average service. Professional growth requirements, penalties, extra pay for extra duties—these, the report says, are not merit provisions, though they are often misrepresented as such.

A number of school superintendents are quoted on reasons for giving up merit provisions. Lack of confidence in evaluating procedures and dissatisfaction on the part of teachers are the basic reasons. "Teachers began to feel like greyhounds chasing a mechanical hare," one school system reported. In this community salary schedule limits were raised much faster than actual salaries.

Noting that agitation for payment based on quality of service is more pronounced among laymen and school boards than among teachers themselves, the report admits that some segments of the profession are vigorous in advocating merit rating. It also challenges the popular conception that industry has universally embraced the idea. The conclusions of Esso Standard Oil Company regarding incentives are given as an example of an industry not impressed with such a program.

"Frankness compels us to assert that past experience with and present evidence about merit salaries are not too encouraging," said T. M. Stinnett, executive secretary of TEPS. "But then the experience may have been too limited and certainly the evidence is not all in."

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"Our position," he added, "is simply this: This is a professional matter; thus the profession should take the lead in vigorous, scientific experimentation to get at the truth. We deplore the apparent motivation behind some—certainly not all—of the pressures for adoption of merit salary plans. But we deplore more, the reluctance wherever it exists, of the teaching profession to examine—not adopt sight unseen or embrace unquestioningly—any idea, however radical or unfeasible it may seem."

Feature articles summarizing the facts and issues, the difficulties and obstacles, and the workings of incentive plans in industry are presented symposium style. Six types of plans are described in major articles. They cover programs tried in West Hartford, Conn.; Ladue, Mo.; Glencoe, Ill.; Ithaca, N.Y.; Newton, Mass.; and Grosse Point, Mich. Brief descriptions of merit salary schedules in selected school districts are also included along with a series of reports on why such schedules were abandoned. Bibliographical material for more detailed research concludes the report. Copies of the June issue of the *Journal of Teacher Education* may be ordered from Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C. \$1.00

WCOTP MEETS IN GERMANY

The teacher supply and demand question went international last August as educators from 50 countries met in Frankfurt, Germany, to swap ideas on common problems. Representing member teachers organizations, 250 delegates came together for the sixth annual conference of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP). An international non-governmental organization, WCOTP was founded in 1951. Almost 50 NEA members attended the Frankfurt Conference. Reorganizing teacher shortage as a world problem, conferees studied conditions in 37 countries as a basis for discussion and solution. Prior to the conference, WCOTP secured reports from its member organizations in all parts of the world for this background information.

FOR STUDENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES CLASSES

The 101 Highlights series of 1957-58 is now in preparation. Information will be given on each of 60 countries of the world including all the Latin American Republics. Most reports are mimeographed and are from 4 to 6 pages in length. The contents are based on primary sources, travels, and for interviews with diplomats. On subscription basis two or three reports are mailed every two weeks during the year. A special report has been prepared on the new country, GHANA, in Africa. It is available at 35 cents each or three for one dollar. This series will be issued for one year on a subscription basis at ten dollars per subscription from Crowson International Publications, P. O. Box 6188, Washington, D. C. If payment is mailed with the order, a 10% per cent discount may be taken. Individual reports for student use are available at 25 cents each.

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findings from research studies on school boards conducted by the Center in midwestern states. It is the second report in a series dealing with areas related to school administration to be published by the Center.

A composite picture of the individual who is most effective as a school board member emphasizes his formal education, according to the report. "Board members who had had more than four years of college preparation were significantly more effective than members who had from one to four years in college," it stated. "He should also be a member of one of the professions, have a minimum tenure of four years, and be under sixty years of age. Parenthood and sex of the board member are not closely related to effectiveness."

The report tells of the importance of the school board in American education. It says that the governing of local public schools by locally selected lay persons is one of America's unique contributions to political thought. "School boards constitute the heart of the educational administration; they set the tone for each local school system. A board which understands and performs well its proper functions is the first prerequisite of a good educational program in any community." A good school board, according to the report, is one that operates in accordance with written policies, holds open meetings, and has members who attract more good members.

The most important single responsibility of a board of education is the selection of a superintendent of schools who will guide the community's educational program, according to the Center. "Too often," it states, "this vital appointment is made without thorough deliberation. In general, school boards do not actively seek a superintendent, but wait until one comes along. One survey showed that 65 per cent of the boards had no specific standard of selection other than a single interview. In selecting a superintendent," the report continues, "too little consideration is given to the candidate's philosophy of education. School boards are likely to be more concerned with his knowledge of financial matters, even though such powers are not freely delegated to him. Seldom do boards realize that picking a new superintendent is an opportunity for teachers and community to clarify educational goals by defining the type of leadership needed."

The Midwest Administration Center is one of the regional centers of the Cooperative Program in Educational Administration sponsored by the American Association of School Administrators and financed by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. It involves both the University of Chicago and other colleges and universities interested in improving the training they offer in school administration.

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